

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

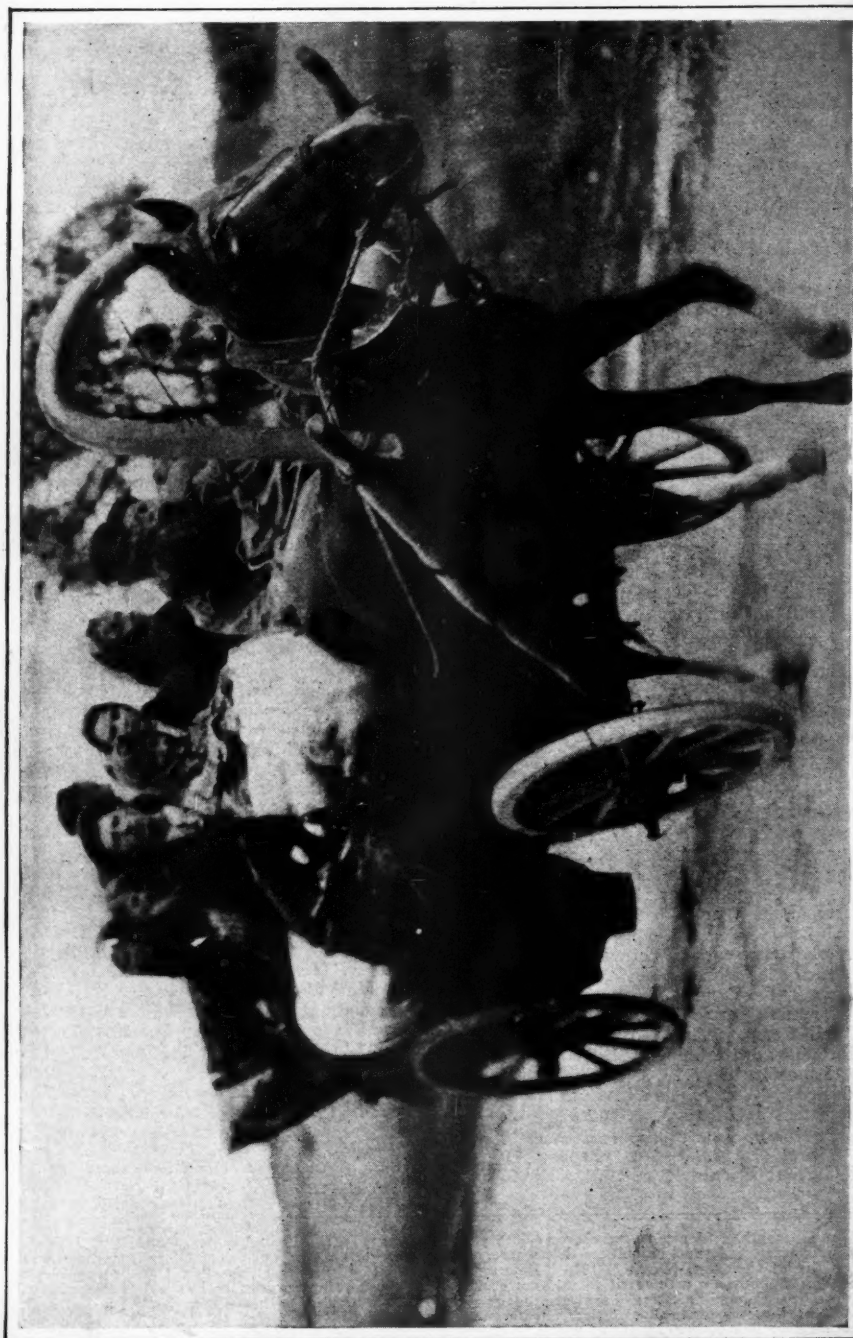
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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POLISH FAMILIES FLEEING BEFORE THE GERMAN ADVANCE

(Scenes like this seem far removed from the thoughts and the soil of American people; yet, if our military experts are correct, it would be not all at all impossible for a foreign power, by seizing a narrow strip of our Atlantic seaboard, including in its area our arms and munitions manufacturing, to hold the entire country at its mercy. Eastern residents might very possibly then re-enact these now familiar European refugee scenes, migrating Westward for safety.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 3

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*"Defense"
a Present
Need*

It is now the general opinion that the foremost question before Congress when it meets in the first week of December will be that of the preparation of the United States for defense against the rising tide of militarism that threatens to destroy the most sacred rights of nations and individuals. The question has many phases. There are excellent Americans, men and women, who think of it almost wholly from the standpoint of ultimate aims and ideals, and whose discussion is along lines of ethical principle. There are others,—also of the generalizing trend of mind,—who think in terms of broad practical policy and of legal formulas, and are bent upon the construction of world institutions to provide defense for all nations alike. There are others of a more concrete and direct way of thinking and acting. They try to look at things exactly as they are, and to be ready for emergencies that might arise suddenly. They think of what might confront us many years before international justice could be guaranteed by means of a strong world organization centered at The Hague. They ask for insurance against onslaughts that might take place long before the sway of ethical ideals could be relied upon to protect the weaker against the stronger.

*World Har-
mony Our
Aim and End*

This magazine has no altered views to express upon any phase of these questions of war, peace, national aims, and public duty. It has discussed them often during the past twenty-five years, and its editorial doctrines have not changed at any time as regards the mission, duty, and policy of the United States. This periodical, in its editorial views and in its contributors' pages, has cared as much for the fine ideals of peace and world progress and harmony as Jane Addams, or Mrs. Villard, or Andrew Carnegie, or David Starr Jordan. It has, with certain modifications of their ultra-legalism, approved the arbitra-

tion programs of men like Mr. Taft and Mr. Knox. It has believed, in spite of current ridicule and criticism, that there was great moral and even practical value in the peace treaties of Mr. Bryan. It has believed preëminently in the right adjustment of unsettled questions as a path to peace, and has therefore regarded the policies of Elihu Root as Secretary of State, under the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt, as the most sagacious and the most beneficent in all our recent history.

*The Duty
to Be
Efficient*

On the other hand, we have never been convinced by the arguments of Mr. Carnegie, and of foreign friends like the Baron D'Estournelles de Constant, that the United States had no need of any army or any navy, or any kind of preparation for defense, because of its economic and geographical conditions and its international relationships. We have always believed that the United States should have a thoroughly adequate navy; and we have argued that any failure to maintain the fleet on a high scale of strength and efficiency would result in calamity. It is our mission to bear a proper share of responsibility for the guardianship and the evolution of various nations besides our own, in a struggling and painful epoch. A refusal to be efficient and vigorous implies a distrust of our own character and motives. This entire nation, by a sentiment overwhelmingly strong, is for honorable, righteous, and permanent peace. Its motives are not to be doubted. Our own right to live quietly in our homes is too valuable and too sacred to be trifled with by leaving it uninsured.

*Citizenship
and
Training*

The people of Switzerland, who are quite as pacific as we are, do not doubt their own motives or malign their own characters and ideals. They know that they have a right to live in peace, though in the midst of a troubled

world; and so they put machine-guns and heavy artillery in every pass, and train every boy to defend his mother and sisters in the enjoyment of their prized blessings of domestic and social quiet and order. This magazine, therefore, agrees fully with Gen. Leonard Wood and all those who represent the idea that American security and American influence for good in the world would be greatly enhanced if every American man and boy were so trained that he could do his full and well-rounded duty as a citizen in any emergency. This is no new doctrine on our part. For many years we have been of the opinion that education in the United States was to a great extent a failure in its results and tendencies. We have made education a public affair and a public charge, without making it properly serve public ends.

*Where
Education
Fails*

All over the country, at ever-increasing cost, we are constructing splendid buildings for the service of primary and higher instruction of all the children and young men and women. We are training teachers from the scholastic standpoint, and are trying to make the schools serve in a better way the individual preparation for industry, commerce, and agriculture. But we are almost wholly failing to utilize the educational system for the specific training of citizens in their various duties as such. The consequence is that the standards and methods of our political and organized life are lower than those of our private life. There is perfect consistency between the ideals of those who glorify peace, and the aims of those who would train every American boy to be ready to help maintain peace in any time of emergency or danger. We are not getting anything like the social and public values that we ought to be reaping from our investment in schools and education. Scholarship is not popular in our universities and colleges. Athletic life furnishes no proper outlet, because it is vicarious and quasi-professional. A few young gladiators monopolize the athletic activity of our institutions, and the vast majority are taught to look on and yell for the maintenance of college or school spirit.

*How to
Wake Up Our
Students*

Thus our great institutions, though more and more costly in their appointments and maintenance, are painfully aware that they are not producing the results that ought to be manifest. Many of their students,—a possible majority,—cannot write a well-phrased or

correctly spelled letter. They do not know the Bible, or Shakespeare, or Charles Dickens. They are not capable of reading the editorial page of a good newspaper. This criticism does not apply to all, but to what in at least a good many large institutions must include fully half of the undergraduates. It would be unjust to locate blame in any specific quarter. The faults lie deep in our current life, and are widespread. There are great resources of worth and of power latent in those very youths who do not find themselves absorbed in the study of textbooks, or held to discipline by the sternness of the football coach. But there is a gospel of social and public duty, accompanied by certain practical applications, that might be used to bring out the earnestness and personal worth of thousands of these young men. They should be strongly impressed with the gravity of the issues of this momentous time in which we live. Without much if any additional burden to the taxpayers, every one of these students of high schools, normal schools, colleges, and universities could be so taught and trained as to be well prepared to exercise many of the usual, and some of the unusual, duties of citizenship. Such training would benefit students in their health and morals, would give them a finer sense of private as well as of public duty, and would furnish them with various kinds of practical experience and knowledge that would redound to the welfare of our political and governmental life.

*Proper
Conditions of
Voting*

After a reasonable interval of time, no young man should be admitted to the privilege of voting until his fitness had been passed upon by a competent committee. He should have some mental and ethical training in the duties and obligations of citizenship, and should accept not merely the established principle of liability to military duty, but also the obligation to be prepared to serve efficiently. The kind of training we have in mind would be valuable from every standpoint. It would not merely fit a boy to be a soldier or a junior officer in a company or a regiment of citizens called to arms, but it would fit him to exercise the power and discretion of a policeman or to show the courage and skill of a fireman. It would make him understand the duties of a sanitary inspector. It would not only teach him how trenches are made in time of war, but it would teach him how good roads are constructed and maintained in time of peace. It would al-

low him to specialize, and to learn many necessary modern things regarding inventions and the practical use of machinery. There are a great many boys who cannot learn mathematics, physics, and chemistry by way of theory or the use of textbooks. But beginning with the practical machine as a concrete thing in its construction and its use, they can be led to a very earnest study of mathematics, physics, and other branches of science.

Duty and Incentive

The great thing that our boys and young men need is, first, to have their earnestness aroused by being made to see and feel the use of the thing they are set to do, and second, to be given much to do, under proper incentives. It is not militarism that we advocate, but common sense and public duty. Militarism means the preparation and intention to use force against the rights of other people. Preparedness, of the kind we advocate, means the



SOME AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS IN A SUMMER CAMP, WITH GENERAL WOOD (SECOND FROM RIGHT) LENDING ENCOURAGEMENT

ability to protect and maintain rights as against militarism and aggression. We have spoken heretofore with commendation of the movement for training students in military duty under the auspices of the United States Army. The student camps of the present summer have been notably successful. We have so few trained soldiers in proportion to the greatness of our population and the vastness of our national interests, that there is imperative need of the immediate training of a great many intelligent young men who could be of service in case of the need of raising a volunteer army. This emergency work is one thing, and a very necessary matter. Its gradual merging into that more universal and general training which we advocate is, of course, a somewhat different thing.



OLD CHINA, DRIVEN BY JAPAN. ALLUDING TO YOUNG CHINA, REMARKS: "I DIDN'T RAISE MY BOY TO BE A SOLDIER."

(Mr. Rogers, the cartoonist of the New York Herald, intends us to see in China's condition of unpreparedness for self-defense, something similar to our own situation)

A Series of Military Schools

We have much more to build upon in the training of intelligent young men to serve as soldiers, or even as officers, than most people are aware. With a sufficient awakening of interest, and definiteness of purpose, we could provide military education on a very great scale at almost no additional expense. Throughout the United States we have a series of State colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, known as the Land Grant colleges because created in 1862 under the Morrill Act. They have obtained additional gifts from the nation, and are now receiving, besides their original endowment, \$50,000 a year for each State. There are now fifty-two such institutions, besides sixteen separate ones in the South for negro students. One of the conditions of the grant in 1862, and still maintained in the laws, is the require-

ment of military instruction. Congress may at any time give more definiteness and vitality than has heretofore existed to this particular branch of required instruction.

*How to
Vitalize the
System*

Every year, then, Congress is appropriating at least two and a half million dollars for the support of these institutions. There are probably more than 30,000 young men in any given year, enjoying the benefits of education in such schools, largely at the national expense. The new and up-to-date kind of military training that the War Department and leaders like General Wood are working out could be given in these institutions without any interference with the other kinds of study in which the young men are engaged. It could be so associated with their physical and mental training as to be of positive benefit to them, while adding greatly to the defensive resources of the country. We have the opportunity,—since the law requires military instruction in these schools,—to give the subject the importance that our present needs as a nation render appropriate. Besides these publicly supported institutions we have thousands of students in schools which are avowedly of a military character, so far as their discipline goes and much of their instruction. A conspicuous type is the Virginia Military Institute. We referred last month to the Culver Institute in Indiana and the training of high-school boys under its auspices. Men like President Hibben of Princeton, and

*A Citizens'
Training
Camp*

An account of the citizens' training camp at Plattsburg, N. Y., appears elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW. Some 1200 men, remarkable for intelligence and character, have been giving a month for intense technical military instruction, because they believe that in so doing they are setting a good example, and fulfilling a duty to the country that they love. Anybody who would criticize either the spirit or the method of this movement should face clearly the moral and logical dilemma. Our technical military resources are very small. The citizen who would oppose the enlargement of those resources, by the voluntary effort and self-sacrifice of the kind of men who went to Plattsburg last month, cannot maintain the slightest pretext to consistency unless he goes so far as to advocate the disbanding of the United States Army. He must favor the dismantling of our fortifications and coast defenses, and oppose the appropriation of a single dollar for the further maintenance of the military establishment. When we have any army at all, we admit the principle that war may come and that the profession of arms is necessary in our generation. If war should come, we must enormously increase the army, either by volunteer method or by conscription. In either case we must enlist men who



A GROUP OF AMERICAN STUDENTS IN A TYPICAL MILITARY SCHOOL, WHO HAVE NOW AN ESPECIAL DUTY TO TAKE THEIR TRAINING SERIOUSLY. THIS GROUP, FROM THE NEW MEXICO MILITARY SCHOOL, STANDS FIRST IN COMPETITIVE MARKSMANSHIP



THIS SNAPSHOT OF SWISS SCHOOLBOYS SHOWS THEM IN CERTAIN OF THE EXERCISES BELONGING TO THEIR MILITARY TRAINING, AS PART OF THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

are either fit or unfit to serve as soldiers. If they are unfit, we must either spend a long time in training them, or else sacrifice their lives in large and needless proportion.

*The Army
That We
Need*

To maintain an enormous standing army of the old-fashioned kind would be exceedingly expensive, and would produce the incidental evil of militarism. But to make training for military and other forms of public service a part of the necessary education of every boy, would not only entail comparatively little expense, but would so heighten and intensify the efficiency of the average young citizen as to repay the expenditure many times over. As for our regular army, it ought to be reconstituted, at as early a date as possible, upon a greatly improved system; and it ought to be made much larger than it is, without relatively increasing the cost. Every officer, high or low, in the United States Army, should be not merely a strict military disciplinarian, but should have the motive and spirit of a good teacher. Enlistments in the army should be short, and reenlistment should be discouraged and in due time wholly discontinued. The more ignorant and less-developed enlisted men might be kept and trained for two years. The more intelligent ones, already instructed in the public schools, might be enlisted for one year and given very valuable training and experience. Their mental and moral, as well as their physical, discipline should be considered at all times.

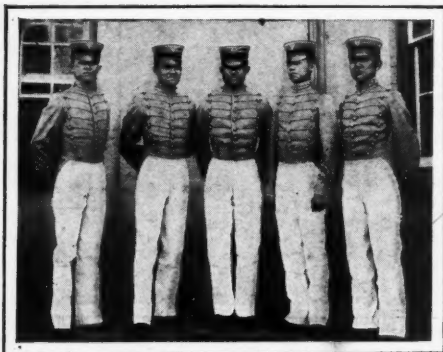
*A Valuable
Service*

Service for a year in the army should be creditable, and should carry with it the presumption of worth, efficiency, and character. Young men serving in the army in this fashion should be taught as much as possible, in as short a time as possible, and then enrolled in a continually growing body of reserves. They should be

stationed and transported with some view to their education and future value as citizens. Even the German and French army systems, with all their objectionable phases, have many advantages in the training and development of millions of young men who go from the comparatively short term of army discipline to the ranks of civil and industrial life. The United States could have an army of 300,000 young men, on the plan of short and intense service and the highest possible training. Our navy is doing much to teach and train the young men who enlist in it,



THESE GERMAN BOYS, BELONGING TO A SOCIETY AKIN TO OUR BOY SCOUTS, ARE BEING TAUGHT FIRST AID TO THE INJURED AS A PART OF THEIR PRELIMINARY INSTRUCTION IN DUTIES AS MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY. ALL AMERICAN BOYS SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN THIS WAY



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FILIPINO STUDENTS AT WEST POINT

(We are now training and graduating at our National Military Academy young men from our insular dependencies. We are teaching boys in the Philippines and Porto Rico many lessons of a practical kind that are not usually given to American boys in our own schools)

and it can do still more of this kind of work in the future. A large navy is an expensive thing, but for the United States it is at the present time a matter of necessity. At least some portion of the expense can be offset by a deliberate purpose to make a brief period of naval service positively valuable for all future life to a very large number of young men. This is Secretary Daniels' aim.

*Improving
the
Navy*

We are presenting in this number (see page 297) a very instructive article by Mr. Waldemar Kaempfert, on the relationship of scientific and mechanical invention to the problems of national defense. Mr. Kaemp-

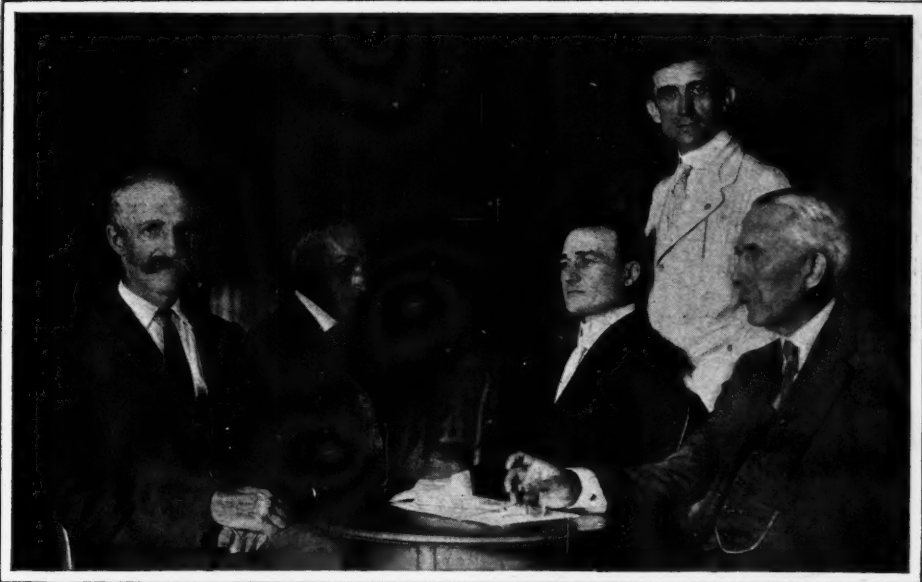
fert's article is apropos of the much-heralded board, devised by Secretary Daniels, for passing upon inventions that might be of use in the navy, and for the development in laboratory testing and research of plans and methods that require patient experiment in order to bring them to perfection. Here again let the man who cavils or objects face honestly the alternatives. Let us refuse to appropriate a single dollar for naval expenditure, and let us put out of commission and send to the junk dealer all the ships we now possess. This is one logical alternative. On the other hand, if we are to have a navy,—and we are actually maintaining one at an expense of nearly \$150,000,000 a year,—let us refuse to have it inferior through stupidity or through hesitant policies. Let us use the very highest intelligence we can command to make it the most efficient and up-to-date instrument of national defense in the entire world. Let us employ the best inventive genius and the finest administrative talent, and let us have no doubts at all regarding the value of our policy.

*A National
Sea
Policy*

There has never been anything more intellectually pitiable than the state of mind of certain people who have opposed the consistent policy of two new battleships a year, while willing to compromise on one ship,—their motive being that they did not like the navy and did not really want any ships! The navy is an intolerable burden and expense, unless it is a useful and valuable kind of insurance of our



THIS SCENE SHOWS YOUNG ITALIAN BOYS UNDERGOING MILITARY INSTRUCTION IN A MOVEMENT KNOWN AS THE ITALIAN BOY SCOUTS.—WHICH IS, OF COURSE, MORE MARTIAL THAN THE AMERICAN MOVEMENT, ALTHOUGH NOT BETTER FITTED TO TRAIN BOYS FOR CIVIC DUTY

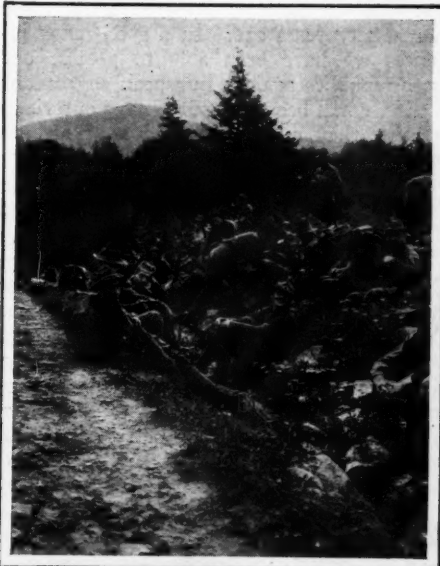


PLANNING TO STUDY AND INVENTORY OUR NATIONAL RESOURCES FOR DEFENSE

(On the left is Mr. Gifford Pinchot and standing is Mr. Thomas R. Shipp, president and secretary of the National Conservation Association. The other gentlemen are, from left to right, Norman C. McLoud, E. L. Worsham, and Dr. Henry S. Drinker. They conferred last month in regard to calling a great conference of scientific, industrial, and other experts for the study of our national resources, with a view to our fitness for self-maintenance and self-defense in time of need. The present position of Russia, France, Germany, and some other countries, illustrates the desirability of our knowing just where we stand in respect to the materials that would be most essential if we were cut off from foreign sources)

national peace and dignity, and unless it is a positive help to us in the maintenance of what we believe to be a beneficent international policy. If we are to have submarines, it is ridiculous for a nation of our great population and vast resources not to invent and build the best possible submarines, in numbers adequate to serve the ends we have in view in building any submarines at all. And the same principle applies to battleships and other members and adjuncts of a suitably balanced modern navy.

minion, our Government took the ground that not only our own English-speaking country,—but also the Spanish-speaking and

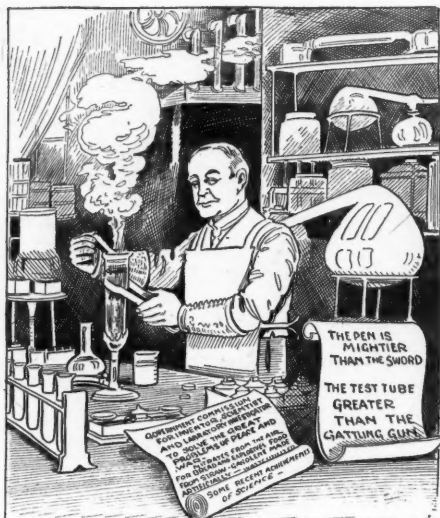


A BODY OF AMERICAN STUDENTS TAKING INTENSIVE MILITARY TRAINING DURING THE PAST SUMMER

*Why We
Must Be
"On Duty"*

In the international sense the people of the United States do not constitute a restless nation.

For fifty years of this has been the most quiescent, peaceable, and conservative nation in the world, with the exception of some smaller countries like Switzerland. In this modern period world conditions have been changing rapidly, and the elements in all countries that stand for safety, order, harmony, and progressive civilization, earnestly desire that a country like the United States should be not only well disposed but very strong. When the greater part of Latin America, in the first two decades of the nineteenth century, had broken away from European do-



THE MAN IN THE LABORATORY NOWADAYS IS THE GREAT RELIANCE OF THE MAN IN THE FIELD; AND THEREFORE THE GOVERNMENT PROPOSES TO PROVIDE FOR RESEARCH AND THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF INVENTIVE GENIUS

By "Bart," in the St. Paul News

other parts of North and South America,—ought to be allowed to develop their own political conditions under self-government. And so the Monroe Doctrine was announced as a part of a program of peace and order for the Western Hemisphere. It was our duty to do what we could to uphold the position that we announced to the world more than ninety years ago. In a good many instances we have been able to protect our sister republics against European aggression; but if we had been without a navy our views in more than one case would have had no determining influence.

The Case of Cuba

The Cuban struggle for independence that began in 1895 was one of a long series that had kept Cuba in turmoil. Spain had lost the power to administer Cuba in peace and order. The Cuban patriots were too lacking in material resources to expel the Spaniards summarily. Neither side could win quickly, and neither could of its own accord yield to the other. Almost 200,000 young soldiers from Spain were wasting their own strength, and exhausting the resources of the home country in a fruitless effort to subdue the Cuban insurrection. There was misery and chaos, ever increasing, throughout the island. It became the duty of the United States to try to end a situation so near our own coast,

after three years of deadlocked and wasteful struggle. We had allowed both our army and our navy to lag far behind our development in other respects, to the detriment of our rightful influence as a factor in the order of the world. Our Government undertook to persuade Spain to withdraw from Cuba on some terms that the Cubans could accept. But Spain had more than ten times as many soldiers under arms in Cuba as we could send there on short notice. Furthermore, European naval experts supported Spanish opinion in the belief that the navy of Spain was stronger and better than the navy of the United States. We were not regarded as ready for the test of force.

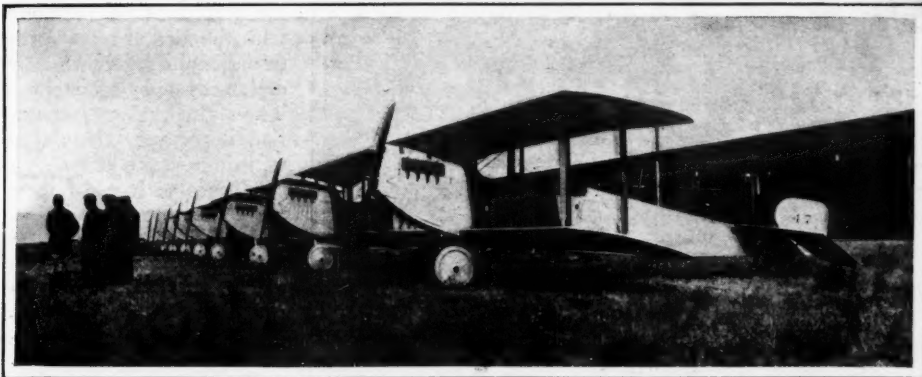
If We Had Owned More Ships!

If the United States had owned even two or three more modern battleships and cruisers, we should never have had the war with Spain. We would have helped the Spaniards to withdraw, and aided in the creation of a Cuban republic, without the firing of a shot. Our position in having as much of a navy as we had, without having enough to prove convincing to Spain, was highly expensive and foolish. It involved us in a war that we should otherwise have escaped. Helping Spain to get out of Cuba when her position there was no longer tenable would have been an act of real service. Helping Cubans, with



UNCLE SAM IS DRUMMING-OUT OLD "GENERAL INEFFICIENCY" AND DEMANDING AN UP-TO-DATE SUBSTITUTE

From the Public Ledger (Philadelphia)



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE FIRST COMPLETE SQUADRON OF UNITED STATES ARMY AEROPLANES

(This new photograph illustrates what has been very rapid progress in the past year. Both Secretary Daniels and Secretary Garrison propose a considerable increase in the aeroplane service as auxiliary to navy and army. The squadron here shown is now in active service in the Southwest)

the good-will of Spain, to set up a republic would also have been an act of fine international character. We could have rendered both of these services, firmly and justly, if we had been adequately prepared. The principle involved is so simple that one wonders why it has to be set forth so often. If it is advisable to have a police force to keep order and to make the streets safe, there is no need of arguing that the police force should be large enough and sufficiently well trained to keep order without having to fight mobs, quell riots, and suffer violence at the hands of criminal gangs.

*Other
Lessons of Our
History*

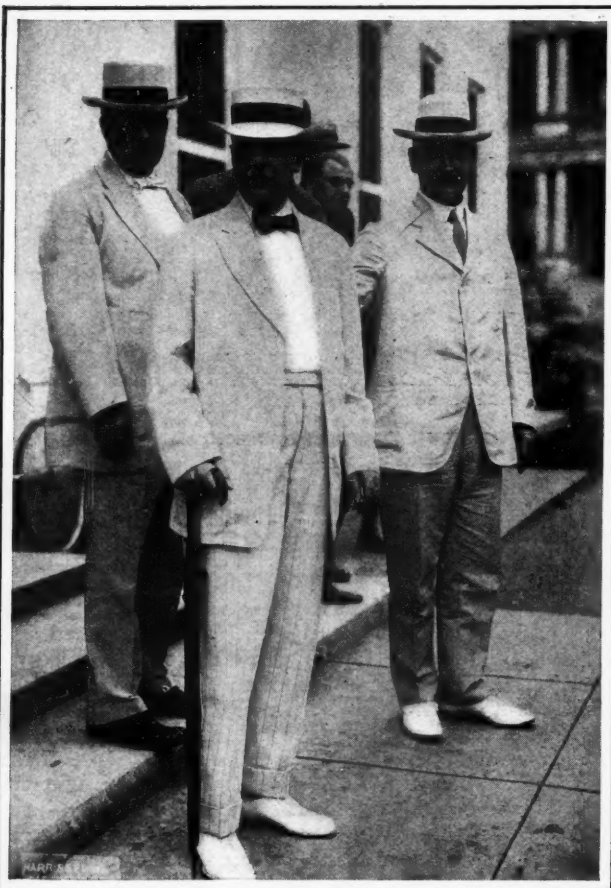
Mr. Roosevelt, as an authority on the War of 1812, has shown that we should probably have avoided that war altogether, and should certainly have escaped its most humiliating incidents, if our army and navy had not been allowed to become so insignificant. We had known for twenty years that we had important rights to maintain and to defend, and that those rights were being violated by England and also by France. We were driven into an unfortunate war with England, after having been on the verge of war with France. At far less expense, and with far greater dignity, we could have escaped war altogether by adopting the policy of being thoroughly prepared from the very start to maintain our rights with insistence and energy. Thus it is plain that lack of preparation does not keep us out of war. On the contrary, nearly all of our wars have been incurred by reason of our lack of preparation.

*The Govern-
ment and
the Ships*

Precisely the range and extent of the recommendations that President Wilson will make to Congress, in accordance with plans that are being worked out in the War and Navy departments, are not yet known. But the Administration is not ignoring the subject, and its views have been at least partly expressed. Questions having to do with the size of the navy and the kinds of ships to be built are highly technical. The ordinary citizen is not competent to deal with such matters by the exercise of his independent judgment. But there can be widespread support of the principle that the United States ought in this period to have an ample navy. It will be the part of the experts, the professional students, the Administration, and the members of Congress to decide what is meant by an adequate navy for the purposes of our country. Secretary Daniels has been conferring with the President on this subject, and chairmen of Congressional committees are in touch with the Administration. All reports are to the effect that a steady increase in the larger kind of battleships will be recommended, while the national sentiment in favor of a very large increase in submarines and aeroplanes is recognized by Secretary Daniels.

*The Naval
Experts
at Work*

It was understood that Secretary Daniels was about to announce the names of twenty scientists and inventors, who would serve with Thomas A. Edison as members of the new advisory board. The General Board of the Navy, headed by Admiral Dewey, has been



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

A SUMMER PICTURE OF CABINET OFFICERS AT WASHINGTON

(In the center is Secretary Lansing, of the Department of State, whose work has at once commanded general favor and confidence. On the reader's left is Secretary Garrison, whose plans for the expansion of our army and the creation of reserve forces are in accord with the best public opinion. On the other side of Mr. Lansing is Secretary Houston, of the Department of Agriculture, who believes that farm prosperity and wealth must continue to be the largest factor in the nation's financial and general security)

giving the closest attention all summer to our own problems as viewed in the light of Europe's current experience. We may confidently expect that out of the wisdom of this Naval Board, and the study and thought of President Wilson and the Administration, we shall have mature recommendations for naval enlargement that the country will be prepared to support and that Congress must not be allowed to disregard. Navies cannot be improvised, and that of the United States must be expanded, even at the cost of some mistakes that will be due to the rapidity with which methods of offense and defense by water are changing. The most extensive preparations for defense that we can possibly

make will be in harmony with the idea of settling international differences by diplomacy or by arbitration. The right kind of preparation is the very thing that will do most under existing conditions to insure respect for those doctrines of law and order that we have always proclaimed to the world, and must never abandon.

There is no
*Politics
and Policy* need of throw-
ing these issues

into the strife and disputation of party politics in view of the fact that a Presidential election occurs next year. It may indeed be true that some public men have a higher degree of energy and capacity in dealing with the practical problems of the army and navy than others. But at the present time there is a very wide consensus of opinion, regardless of party; and the prevailing views are as well expressed by Secretaries Garrison and Daniels as by any other leaders. The thing that is wanted is a national policy, around which thoughtful and far-seeing men of all parties will rally when Congress meets in December or at such earlier date as the President may appoint.

Cabinet officers like Secretaries Lansing, Garrison, Lane, and Houston are known as broad-minded and sagacious citizens and publicists, rather than as party politicians. Officials like Secretaries McAdoo and Redfield, in like manner, are known as men of practical business affairs, rather than as politicians in the party sense. If Mr. Daniels and Mr. Burleson have been better known as aggressive Democrats, it is none the less true that they are patriotic Americans of honesty, conviction, and courage, who would not, in times of stress and peril, assume positions for party motives upon questions involving the nation's welfare and safety. Congress will be ready to support courageous plans; there should be no delay.

What of
Next Year?

If, therefore, the present administration will produce a strong, well-rounded, thoroughly courageous and therefore safe policy of national insurance through preparation for defense; the Republicans in Congress ought not to cavil or object for the mere gaining of points to be used in the campaign next year. It is highly probable that affairs may have taken such a turn that the campaign of 1916 will amount to nothing more than a vote of confidence. Mr. Lincoln had come through some painful years, and had been bitterly assailed from within his own party, as well as from without; yet when 1864 compelled a popular verdict there was nothing to do but support Mr. Lincoln. And the country, with its increasing knowledge of the conditions then existing, has ever since been growingly unanimous in approving the verdict of 1864.

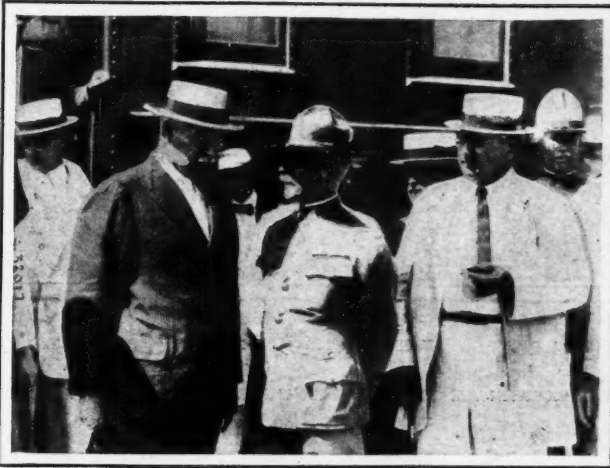
Mexico and
"Watchful
Waiting"

It has been very hard to follow Mr. Wilson's Mexican policy in its incidents and details. Yet



PRESIDENT WILSON AND UNCLE SAM SEEM TO BE MUCH INTERESTED IN THEIR TRAINING, AND PROPOSE TO BE READY FOR EMERGENCIES

From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle)



International News Service, New York

MAJOR-GENERAL HUGH L. SCOTT ARRIVING AT THE BORDER LAST MONTH, TO CONFER WITH GENERAL VILLA

(General Scott's influence is notably salutary with our neighbors of northern Mexico. He stands at the left of the group. At the right is George C. Carothers, a representative of the State Department)

when the harsh and unsparing critics of that policy attempt to tell us what they would have done in Mr. Wilson's place, it becomes plain that they are much more at variance with one another than with Wilson himself. Some would have solved the problem by recognizing Huerta and backing him up. Others would have done it by recognizing Carranza at an early day, and backing him against Huerta. Others would have made armed intervention in the interest of American and foreign citizens and property. The forty bitterest critics of Wilson's Mexican policy have forty different programs that they declare Wilson should have adopted. And some of the forty have several alternative programs, which they seem to prefer on different days of the week. We must confess not to have liked the Wilson program,—if, indeed, there was any program except "watchful waiting" and an opportunist treatment of details. But it is fair to say that we have not been able to put confidence in the proposals of any of the experts who have had policies of their own.

If Only
We Had a
Chance

The underlying trouble has been that the Mexicans have not trusted us, and have not wanted our help in the reestablishment of civil order and liberty. Apparently it will be a long time before Mexico can be successfully administered as a whole. The northern part of the country would be better off as a separate republic, under close relations with



Photographs by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

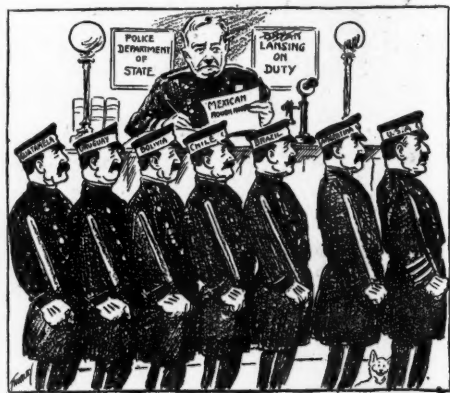
DA GAMA
(Brazil)SUAREZ-MUJICA
(Chile)NAÓN
(Argentina)CALDERON
(Bolivia)DE PIÑA
(Uruguay)MENDEZ
(Guatemala)

THE SIX LATIN-AMERICAN AMBASSADORS AND MINISTERS WHO JOINED SECRETARY LANSING IN THE CONFERENCE ON MEXICO

the United States. Such a republic should have its finances and its civil order guaranteed by a device similar to that of the Platt Amendment under which Cuban stability and prosperity are guaranteed. If northern Mexico were thus constituted a separate republic, the United States could well afford to give it \$50,000,000 for the reconstruction of its railroad system, and \$50,000,000 for the creation of a good school system. In return, we could take over the peninsula of Lower California, which is of no use to Mexico, but which would be valuable to us. And we could purchase a desirable rectification of the frontier by abolishing the Rio Grande as a boundary line and adopting, instead of the shifting river, certain mathematical parallels and meridians on the plan of the lines that separate most of our Western States. This would solve the Imperial Valley problem. We have been putting great skill and zeal into the educational and industrial progress of the remote peoples of the Filipino Archipelago. We have wrought a transformation in the sanitary, political, and general life of the people of Porto Rico. It is a great pity that we cannot have an opportunity to render similar services to our neighbors in the two northern tiers of Mexican states. Our financial investments in those states have been very great, and will in the long run be supported in their rights and claims by public authority. It is deeply to be regretted that the way does not become clear for us to render large services of neighborly good will to the people of a country whose resources, in the material sense, are so certain to be further developed in due time by the capital, knowledge, and energy of men from this side of the boundary.

A Conference On Mexico

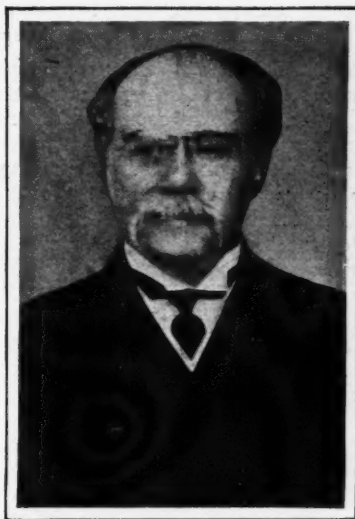
The plan of calling into consultation the Ambassadors of Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, and three other members of the body of Latin-American diplomats at Washington, had much to commend it, although its effects might have been more decisive if the conference had not been so long delayed. Besides the three Ambassadors, the Ministers chosen were those of Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala, whose seniority in the diplomatic corps had especially recommended them. The first session, with Secretary Lansing, was on August 5. An appeal to Mexicans was adopted and signed by Mr. Lansing, Ambassadors Da Gama of Brazil, Suarez-Mujica of Chile, and Naón of Argentina, together with Ministers Calderon of Bolivia, De Piña of Uruguay, and Mendez of Guatemala. The text of an appeal to Mexicans bears date of August 14. It is prefaced by this announce-

LOOKS LIKE A START TO FINISH SOMETHING
From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle)

ment: "The Mexican people are informed that the following communication has been sent to many prominent persons in Mexico who possess authority or military power within the republic." The appeal was a tactful one, rightly claiming to represent the opinions and wishes of the entire continent. Apart from the eloquent language in which this address is clothed as adapted to Latin-American manners and sentiments, the appeal is simply a request that the military and political chiefs of Mexico prepare a truce, come together in a joint conference, establish a provisional government, and call a general election. The conferees offer to aid in the selection of a place for the conference and in the arrangement of details.

What Next?

The eloquent and sentimental appeal comes down abruptly to this rather blunt and harsh concluding sentence: "The undersigned expect a reply to this communication within a reasonable time, and consider that such a time would be ten days after the communication is delivered, subject to prorogation for cause." This appeal was sent not only to Carranza, Villa, Zapata, and all the fighting chiefs, but to the Governors of Mexican states and anybody else whom it might concern. A good many copies seem to have been sent in blank to the City of Mexico, there to be addressed to persons unknown in Washington, but who might be influential in Mexico. It would seem as if so general an appeal might be less effective



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

MR. VASQUEZ TAGLE, PROMINENT MEXICAN LAWYER

(Mr. Tagle is understood to be the public man best suited, in the opinion of President Wilson, to be chosen as Provisional President of Mexico)

than a more specific and restricted one. The natural question was, both in the United States and elsewhere, what lay behind this pious expression. Apparently it was the plan of our Government to support, for Provisional President Mr. Vasquez Tagle, who was Minister of Justice in Madero's cabinet.

*No Solution
In Sight*

It further reported that the United States would stop the export of arms and ammunition to factions failing to support the proposed new government. Disquieting conditions led to our ordering battleships to Vera Cruz early in August, which were subsequently recalled by wireless and then ordered by wireless to proceed. General Carranza, who has been making marked gains, is wholly out of sympathy with any interference, and resents the Tagle suggestion, claiming that he himself is the man upon whom to unite. Villa is declared to be ready to adopt the suggestions of the Pan-American conferees. What may happen next can only be surmised, late in August, at the time when these comments are written. There has been great distress in Mexico, but peace conditions exist in a number of Mexican states, which are wholly tired of war and are operating under local jurisdiction on the state's rights plan. There has been created in the State Department at Washington a new Bureau of Mexican Af-



THEIR NATIONAL GAME

CARRANZA: "Beware, Señor; our people will brook no interference when it comes to their sports and pastimes!"

From the Times-Picayune (New Orleans)

fairs, constituted of men who have had special training or experience. That our Government has determined to proceed decisively for the protection of American interests and the salvation of Mexico from anarchy, seems to be a growing impression; but extreme caution remains the watchword at Washington. There have been repeated rumors that certain European belligerent influences have to some extent been employed to increase the difficulties that might embroil the United States with Mexico, and so engage and absorb us as to make our resources less available for one or another of the transatlantic powers. But such reports have not seemed worthy of serious notice.

*Chronic
Revolution In
Haiti*

The fact that Mexico is not the only one of our neighbor republics which finds difficulty in keeping its house in order, has been brought forcibly to the attention of the American public during recent weeks. A revolutionary movement in Haiti, quickened rather than retarded by wholesale executions, brought about the downfall of the Government late in July. Before the smoke had cleared away, ex-President Zamor and 160 other political prisoners had been executed by Government officials, while President Guillaume Sam himself and a number of his chief supporters were in turn put to death by the enraged revolutionists. Such a state of affairs is shocking; but it is by no means unusual in the "Black Republic." It has been said that only one President of Haiti ever served out his term,—and he was re-elected, and murdered during the second

term. During the past four years the affairs of the country have been directed, or misdirected, by eight Presidents (see the accompanying chronology). Three of the eight were killed, three others saved themselves by flight, one died an apparently natural death, and the eighth is still in office. The aim of all insurrectionists in Haiti is the control of the customs revenue, a matter of nearly \$5,000,000 annually. More than half of this has to be paid out as interest on the public debt; and last year German, French, and British warships,—acting separately, and on different occasions,—saw that Haiti's financial obligations to Europe were not overlooked. The Haitian "general" in the executive chair controls the expenditure of the remaining \$2,000,000. It is not recorded that any portion of this sum is devoted to the public improvements which the unfortunate republic so much needs.

*Our Navy As
the Caribbean
Policeman*

The United States has long found it desirable to keep a warship in Haitian waters, and the cruiser *Washington* arrived at Port au Prince on the second day of the revolution. While too late to prevent the violation of the French legation by a mob which sought and murdered the President there, American sailors and marines were landed to prevent further bloodshed. Unfortunately, two of their number were killed by "snipers" during the first evening. Rear-Admiral Caperton assumed control of the entire situation, disarmed the people, and brought about the election of a President by the national assembly. The new

RECENT HAITIAN HISTORY

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1911 August 4—President Antoine F. C. Simon <i>resigns</i> and leaves country.
August 16—Cincinnatus Leconte elected President.</p> <p>1912 August 8—President Leconte <i>killed</i> when National Palace is destroyed by explosion of powder magazine; Gen. Tancrede Auguste chosen President.</p> <p>1913 May 2—President Auguste <i>dies</i>.
May 4—Senator Michel Oreste elected President.</p> <p>1914 January 27—President Oreste <i>resigns</i>; Senator Davilmar Theodore and Orestes Zamor, leaders of separate insurrections, each proclaims himself President.
February 2—Zamor defeats Theodore in battle.</p> | <p>February 8—Orestes Zamor elected President.
November—President Zamor <i>forced into exile</i>, supporters of Theodore having gained ascendancy; Davilmar Theodore assumes Presidency.</p> <p>1915 February 22—President Theodore <i>resigns</i> and leaves country, in face of revolutionary movement under Gen. Vilbrun Guillaume Sam.
March 1—Gen. Vilbrun Guillaume Sam elected President.
July 27—Insurrection under Dr. Rosalvo Bobo gains control of capital; ex-President Zamor and other political prisoners are executed in attempt to put down revolution.
July 28—President Guillaume Sam <i>killed</i> by the revolutionists.
August 12—Senator Sudre Dartigue-nave elected President.</p> |
|---|---|

executive is Sudre Dartiguenave, a former president of the Senate and, of course, a "General." He has publicly expressed his appreciation of American assistance,—the continuance of which, as he realizes probably better than anyone else, is his only guarantee of personal safety. That Dr. Rosalvo Bobo, leader of the recent revolution, will long abide by the result of the election is doubtful. Ordinarily, as the dominant military figure, he would himself have been elected President; and he condemned the electors as "not representing the will of the people." He is opposed to American intervention of any kind. "Between that and the annihilation of our country I would choose annihilation,"—such were his words when leading the recent insurrection against President Guillaume, who, he charged, was about to "accept this fate for us." It is to be hoped that he will modify his views.

Haiti's Opportunity

The Haitian situation has been a thorn in the side of the United States for many years, and particularly during President Wilson's administration. Last year it threatened to bring on a test of the effectiveness of the Monroe Doctrine, for just before the European war began Germany declared that "the interests of European countries in Haiti are so large that no scheme of reorganization or control can be regarded as acceptable unless it is undertaken under international auspices." The outbreak of war caused the matter to be dropped. President Wilson then



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

REAR-ADMIRAL WILLIAM B. CAPERTON, U. S. N.

(Who for a time last month constituted the only recognized authority in Haiti)

sent ex-Governor Fort, of New Jersey, and later Paul Fuller, Jr., of New York, to study the situation on the ground. It has been hoped that some day a Haitian Government

might be convinced of the desirability of having the United States either supervise the republic's financial affairs, as is being done for Santo Domingo, or undertake the larger task that was performed so quickly and so well for Haiti's other neighbor, — Cuba. But a definite agreement has never been reached. It is believed that Secretary Lansing favors firm action now; and the energetic, yet tactful, course pursued by Rear Admiral Caperton has inspired such confidence among the Haitian people that the renewed proposals of our State Department may be accepted by those in authority and power.



THE MAP OF THE ISLANDS AND SHORES SURROUNDING THE CARIBBEAN SEA SUGGESTS VARIOUS RECENT AND PROSPECTIVE ACTIVITIES OF UNCLE SAM

*Racial
Considerations*

Whatever is to be done in Haiti should be done for the permanent welfare of the inhabitants. It seems to us that the United States has a clear mission to the people of the Haitian half of the great island, even more than to those of the Dominican half. After the annihilation of the whites,—following the period when Haiti was so rich and productive a European colony,—there remained as population elements a persistent mulatto minority and a very slowly increasing black negro majority. Mulatto government was in due time supplanted by that of the more numerous faction. Life in the country districts has been exceedingly primitive, but perhaps is not hopelessly degraded. Revolutions and plunderings originate in the towns. The first thing to be done for Haiti is to ignore a theoretical position of sovereignty which the people of the little republic are wholly unable to maintain. They are vastly more in need of the application of the Platt Amendment than was Cuba. What they need is to be promptly guaranteed against revolutions, to be protected and helped in the matter of their indebtedness and public finance, and carefully assisted in the building-up of local institutions. They need aid in the matter of education, transportation, agricultural progress, and sanitation.

*How
to Help
the Peasants*

A great deal could be done for Haiti by the scientific methods of some of our large "foundations" that promote education and health, and that have been so firmly established in the confidence of the public as a result of the attempts of Chairman Walsh, of the Industrial Relations Commission, to assail their character and methods. We live in a period when race problems of all kinds are confronting our civilization. The negroes cannot be eliminated: there are too many scores of millions of them. Last month we published an article in this REVIEW by an able and representative Virginian, Mr. Plummer F. Jones, showing sympathetically what the recent Negro Exposition at Richmond had demonstrated of a half-century's progress in education and material things among our ten million American negroes. It is true that the negro republic of Haiti has made a bad record during more than a hundred years. But at least it has somehow continued to exist during that period, and in spite of revolutions there is some kind of social order and economic life as a basis for the future. A good deal might be said from that view-point.

*To Upbuild
Haitian
Life*

Why not take what there is in Haiti, and build upon it? We are not belittling the republic of Panama by certain guarantees which constitute a gentle form of protectorate, nor are we doing other than wisely and well for the people of Nicaragua in proposing similar arrangements. We have helped Cuba amazingly, although there is of course always a seamy side to the political and governmental life of a new republic such as the Cubans are carrying on. Mr. Elihu Root, an international statesman who weighs his words, said the other day in his capacity as President of the Constitutional Convention of the State of New York, that government in the Empire State has been about as representative as in Venezuela. If the people of New York have come so far short of making their government efficient, honest and responsive, it would be well not to show too much contempt for the poor negroes of Haiti. Our readers well know that in our opinion the expulsion of Governor Sulzer from office,—apparently for no reason except that he was exposing rogues and scoundrels,—was in view of all the facts a more disgraceful proceeding than any of the recent revolutions in Haiti. It violated the express provisions of the Constitution, and it violated every principle of Anglo-Saxon political right and liberty. Even the Anglo-Saxons, then, have not made a very brilliant success of the business of government. But they have shown a good deal of ability in helping to train wholly non-governing peoples in the rudiments of self-directed social life and order. They have been training and helping Egypt and the Sudan, Porto Rico and the Philippines. They can also help the negroes in Haiti.

*An
Educational
Mission*

It all resolves itself largely into the terms of a new kind of education,—specifically directed towards the fitness of individuals to be members of the economic and political society in which they live. We must adapt our older kinds of education in the United States to the newer and better kinds we have been devising for the welfare of children in the Philippine Islands. If we should send a commission of great experts, headed by President Eliot or Dr. Dillard, or Mr. Wickliffe Rose, to formulate a plan that would regenerate the people of Haiti, there would probably result a kind of educational system that the State of Georgia, for example, could at once take over and apply to its own great system of local negro schools. It might also

apply a similar system to the schools attended by the white children of cotton-mill towns, and those of the upland rural regions.

*Some
Problems
Nearer Home*

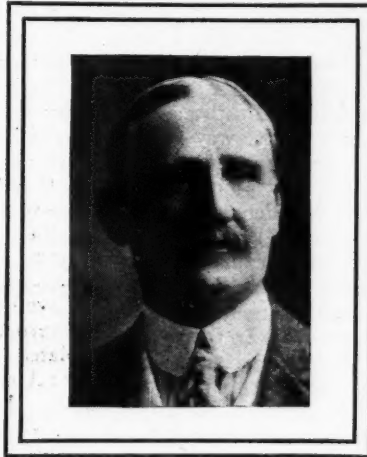
We shall not comment in detail upon the unfortunate and sensational lynching of a prisoner in Georgia last month. The remedy for such things is better civic training. The "poor white" population of a State like Georgia was unduly handicapped by slavery. It was the poor whites, and not the negroes, who were the chief victims of that system. Their education, and their moral and social upbuilding, is the need toward which the unhappy lynching of Leo Frank points most directly. Let it be remembered that lynching is steadily falling off in the South, and that this is to the credit of all social elements and of both races. It reflects the progress of education, and the growth of respect for law and order. New York State, with its great city population, made up largely of immigrants of a poor class, has its own difficult problems of society and government. It can ill afford to be contemptuous towards Georgia or South Carolina, when some failure of government to maintain justice and dignity results in a shameful incident. The only right thing is to go steadily on, with faith in democracy and with a determination to train every child,—training him not merely to get on for himself in the world, but above all to be a law-abiding citizen and a worthy member of the community.

*American
Supervision in
Santo Domingo*

The Dominican Republic shares with Haiti the second largest island in the West Indies. Its people are Spanish-speaking, mainly mulattoes and negroes, though there are many whites,—whereas the Haitians are French-speaking negroes and mulattoes, with no whites. The history of the Dominican Republic has been even more turbulent than that of its neighbor. It was set forth in an article by Mr. Stoddard in this REVIEW for June, 1914. Matters came to a climax ten

years ago, and forced American supervision of customs as an alternative for threatened European intervention. Insurrections have not ceased, to be sure, but they are less frequent and less bloody. Only one President has been assassinated in the ten years, and while three have resigned, it was not necessary for them to seek refuge in flight. In fact, the resignations were invariably the result of compromises arranged by American commissions. Confidence in American good faith and disinterestedness has, however, been severely shaken recently by an unfortunate incident and a regrettable episode.

The incident was the publication of a letter from Secretary of State Bryan to the American Receiver of Customs in the Dominican Republic, soliciting positions "with which to reward deserving Democrats." The episode was the two years' régime of Mr. James M. Sullivan as American Minister to Santo Domingo, brought to an end in July by the acceptance of his much-desired resignation.



© Harris & Ewing

HON. WILLIAM WORTHINGTON RUSSELL
(Minister to Santo Domingo)

*An Experienced
Diplomat
Appointed*

Last month the State Department made known its intention to reappoint Mr. W. W. Russell, the very diplomat whom Mr. Sullivan displaced. Mr. Russell had been in the diplomatic service for eighteen years, and, although a Democrat, had been continued in office, and promoted, by three Republican Presidents. With the advent of the present Democratic administration he was retired. Senator-elect Phelan, of California, had investigated for the President certain charges brought against Minister Sullivan; and he not only found evidence of improper relationships, but intimated that Mr. Sullivan was obviously unfit for the office at the time of his appointment. These matters have had their effect, and there are people in the little republic who believe that their country is being exploited by American financiers and contractors. Broadly speaking, however, no one can doubt the advantages of American financial supervision. The results are a great tribute to the wisdom and efficiency of Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, of Johns Hopkins Uni-

versity, who began his reorganization of Dominican finances in 1905. Interest on the \$20,000,000 public debt is paid regularly, and a sinking-fund will in due time wipe out the entire indebtedness. There is enough revenue left over to run the government and to permit the appropriation of half a million dollars annually for public works, such as harbor improvements and road construction.

*Latin
Americans
Progressing*

Dominicans and Haitians alike may well envy the more fortunate condition of their neighbors in Cuba and Porto Rico, where American influence has had a wider scope. This magazine has frequently found opportunity to call attention to the wonderful transformation wrought in those islands by American medical experts. The course of Cuban affairs during recent years has seemed to justify the belief that the republic is well on its way towards permanent stability and progress. President Menocal has served his people well, justifying the widespread confidence in him at the time of his election, in 1912. It is expected that he will accept a renomination by the Conservatives next year. The chief annoyance in Cuban political matters has been a perennial disagreement over the national budget. In Porto Rico there is a responsible movement,—which has the approval of Governor Yager,—urging the extension of American citizenship and some measure of home rule. The larger affairs of the great and growing continent of South America, during recent weeks, have included the election of Juan Luis San Fuentes as President of Chile, and the inauguration of Dr. José Pardo as President of Peru.

*The
Correspondence
With Germany*

The series of diplomatic "notes" between the United States and Germany, having to do with the *Lusitania* matter, has resulted in no sort of conclusion. Germany's last note had undertaken to set forth practical ways by which American travelers should be able to go through maritime war zones without incurring much risk. The reply of our Government, dated July 21, rejects Germany's proposals and continues to discuss legal principles rather than working arrangements. It is plain that there is an irreconcilable difference of opinion between our Government and that of Germany. There are many Americans who, with the highest respect for our authorities at Washington, cannot quite understand why, from the very beginning, we should not vigorously and promptly have

held all belligerents alike, in their exercise of sea power, to a "strict accountability." In this note of July 21, our Government feels impelled "to press very solemnly upon the Imperial German Government the necessity for a scrupulous observance of neutral rights." This precise language, addressed to all offending belligerents by us, last February, and maintained with vigor on our part, would have had a most clarifying effect. Apparently, Germany's answer to our last note will be delayed, and will derive its tone and form from conditions that may yet develop. Meanwhile we have gone forward with the negotiations relating to the sinking by Germany of the *William P. Frye*, on February 27. Our readers will remember that the *Frye* was a large sailing ship, laden with wheat for England. Our Government and Germany do not agree as to the principles of international law, and the meaning of an old treaty of 1828. But Germany, nevertheless, is willing to pay for the *Frye*, and the amount due will be settled by a mixed commission. It is proposed to arbitrate at The Hague, or otherwise, the points of disagreement regarding the treaty.

*Another
Great Ship
Sunk*

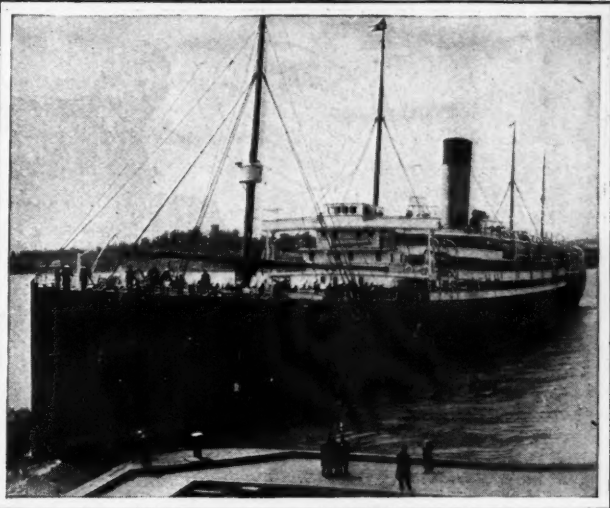
Unfortunately, the feeling against Germany's submarine policy was again stirred up by the sinking on August 19 of the *Arabic* of the White Star Line. This incident was at first treated by many prominent newspapers not only as an unjustified outrage, but as sure to involve the United States in case it could be ascertained that some person of American allegiance might have suffered loss of life. The Government at Washington made no statement except that it would wait for the facts, and proceed in whatever it did with great deliberation. It was felt that almost everything depended upon the question whether or not there had been warning. The list of passengers was not large, and it was soon known that nearly all were rescued. Two American passengers, however, were reported as missing, with perhaps twelve of other nationalities, besides a larger number of members of the crew. The intensity of feeling in the United States was due to the way in which the *Arabic* case seemed to follow and relate itself to the controversy over the case of the *Lusitania*. Since in matters which may involve our nation in great crises we ought not to proceed without profound care and thought, it is proper to consider certain aspects of the *Arabic* case that are unlike those of the *Lusitania*. The great ship that

was sunk on May 7 was primarily a passenger ship, loaded with well-known people who were traveling in good faith; and she was only incidentally carrying a quantity of munitions. Furthermore, the *Lusitania* carried munitions at a time when the supply from America was regarded by nobody as vital in the conduct of the war. The *Arabic*, on the other hand, was chiefly a cargo ship, supremely devoted to the carrying of munitions, while she was in recent months only incidentally a passenger ship, and ought not, in prudence, to have accepted any passengers whatsoever.

Technically, indeed, she was a commercial ship; and under international law she was entitled to be halted by a warning shot, and to have her passengers and crew placed safely in lifeboats, or otherwise protected, before any violence were done to the ship, or her cargo. This is admitted; and the Germans, if they gave no warning, were seriously remiss in the legal aspects of the matter. The incident in that case would be of international gravity, and not exclusively an American affair, even though some Americans were on board. But since our Government has taken the leadership in asserting the rights of neutral passengers on merchant ships of belligerent nations, we cannot ignore the *Arabic* case, and are obliged to take it up in all its bearings.

*The "Arabic"
and Her
Status*

Having said thus much from the standpoint of opposition to Germany's conduct, it is not improper to state what German sympathizers and supporters are saying, whether or not one accepts their views or feels other than repugnance for German submarine methods. The *Arabic*, in their view, was a more important instrument of war, and had been responsible for a far greater loss of life, than the submarine that sank her. The present war is primarily one dependent upon "munitions,"—that is to say, upon war supplies and materials. The *Arabic* was the largest of the English munition-carriers. She was built as a cargo-carrier, rather than a passenger ship, and upon her last three voyages from New York to England she had



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THE "ARABIC", WHICH WAS SUNK BY A GERMAN SUBMARINE ON AUGUST 19

been heavily loaded with vast quantities of war material. When she sailed on her last outbound trip from New York, on July 28, she carried the greatest cargo of war munitions that ever left America. Her huge capacity of sixteen thousand tons was utilized to the utmost. She was as much engaged in the service of the war as the ammunition trucks that haul supplies to artillery in the trenches. German supporters claim, therefore, that any American who chooses to sail upon a ship of this character, engaged at the very moment in the intensest kind of belligerent service, is not clearly entitled to those guarantees that belong, under the recognized principles of international law, to travelers on ships of a merchant character engaged in ordinary trade. The *Arabic* had not been a regular liner from New York, but had been transferred from another route for the express purpose of carrying war materials. For months past the German submarines had been trying to intercept her. It is true that her technical character as a merchant ship was preserved, because she carried no mounted guns as an armed vessel. If she had carried mounted guns she could not, under our law, have left an American port; and thus she would have been unable to render the war services (ammunition-carrying) that were the sole object of her sailings. International law is not merely a set of technicalities that ignore obvious and dominant facts. Munition-carrying, from the standpoint of our Government, is legitimate; and, therefore, a ship like the *Arabic* may have her clearance



PROFESSOR WILSON'S SCHOOL OF INTERNATIONAL LAW

From the *News* (Detroit)

papers when she leaves port. But,—as she sails the seas under full steam for Europe,—she takes on a very different character, in the opinion of an enemy country. She becomes to her German adversaries a more deadly instrument of war than any British dreadnought. The *Arabic* was officered by members of the British Navy, and engaged, as we have said, in the most intense war service.

It will be remembered that the sinking of the *Frye*, which was carrying wheat to England, involved legal questions of international law and property rights. The *Dacia* was a ship under American registry, flying the American flag, which sailed for Germany with a cargo of cotton at a time when the Allies did not dispute the right of neutrals to ship cotton to Germany under neutral flags. The *Dacia* had been bought by Americans from German owners after the outbreak of the war. The English have always admitted and claimed the right of such transfer when made in good faith. The French have held a different view. The English therefore arranged to have the *Dacia* seized by a French warship, and after protests by our Government, and months of delay, it was condemned early last month by a French prize court and sold to a French owner who is now using this American ship,

under the French flag, with a new French name, in the coal trade between Wales and France. There seems to be no doubt whatever as to the violation by France of the established principles of international law in the seizure of this vessel. It was reported that our Government would protest. The case is a fair one for later settlement by friendly arbitration, and will involve no trouble.

Great Britain's earlier replies to the various notes and protests sent by our State Department regarding interference with our trade were not in the main relevant to the questions raised. They complained of Germany's conduct, and seemed to feel that Americans ought to be willing to have their trade with Europe cut off because Germans had been guilty of alleged atrocities, such as the poisoning of wells in South Africa. It was not until late in July that England began to send the United States notes that were carefully written from the standpoint of international law. Several of these notes came at the same time, and they were made public in the first week of August. The most important one was in reply to an American note of March 31. The British Foreign Office had taken four months to reply to the American protest against the British Orders in Council that immediately followed Germany's submarine

France
and the
"Dacia"England
and
Neutral Rights

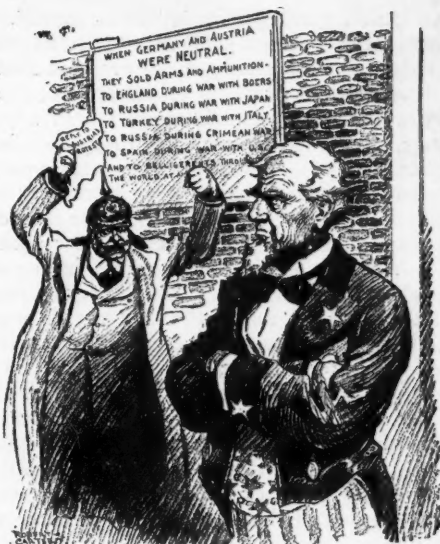
policy. We shall have a further opportunity to take up the points involved more explicitly. The ordinary reader, however, should have in mind the fact that England in trying to hurt Germany and destroy her trade, is said by our Government to use means that offend the rights of neutral countries. England has been working out a form of legal support in justification. She has virtually abandoned the doctrine of reprisal, and now defends her Orders in Council upon the doctrine of blockade. A blockade, to be legal, must be effective. To be effective it must operate against ships from one country as well as those from another. To be recognizable as a legal blockade it must be enforced along the coasts of the belligerent country involved. England's blockade, however, does not operate close to the German coast. It "holds up" ships on the high seas, far from Germany.

*Methods
Opposed at
Washington*

Furthermore,—our Government holds,—while it cuts off in large part the legitimate trade of the United States with Germany, this so-called "blockade" does not touch the trade of Sweden nor that of Norway and Denmark with Germany, because Germany controls the Baltic. But besides all this, England goes so far as to assume control over the kinds and amounts of trade between neutral countries like Sweden and the United States, on the ground that if Sweden, for example, were importing freely of cotton or food supplies, there might be some secondary traffic in such things between Sweden and Germany. Our readers should clearly understand,—however strong their sympathies may be with the cause of the Allies,—that such methods are beyond the pale of international law, and that if we submit to them we abandon the idea that the high seas are free. We accept the doctrine that we have no rights, and that we may trade only where and in such a way as is permitted. We do not wish to be on bad terms with England, yet the continued insistence by the British Foreign Office upon the courses hitherto adopted would seem to make it necessary to consider how to make our rights respected.

*Neutrality
a Duty*

It should be understood that in these matters the questions at issue are not those of property or of commercial profits. The United States at the outset of the great war announced its position to be neutral; and in repeated official statements it has declared that it would stand impartially for neutral rights. The



THE RECORD!
From the Sun (New York)

thing that the English are asking is that, through sympathy and friendship, we become in effect their allies. On the non-official side this, of course, is what our country has already become in a most important sense. Our leading financiers and capitalists, our great manufacturers, our inventors, our grain farmers, our cotton growers, our livestock raisers, all on the vastest scale are coöperating with Great Britain without let or hindrance. But our Government has told Germany that we would insist upon the most scrupulous observance of the rights of neutrals. And if our Government takes a different course in its official tone towards the Allies, it ought in all frankness to summon Congress and advise a direct and open alliance and an immediate participation in the war on the side of the cause that we are already serving so prodigiously.

*Our Arms
Trade and
Austria*

At the end of June, our readers will remember, Austria made a protest to the United States against the shipping of arms and ammunition from this country to the Allies. President Wilson had more than once expressed the grounds upon which the Government could not interfere with the export trade in contraband supplies. Mr. Lansing's reply to the Austrian note is dated August 5, and it elaborates the reasons why our Government will not change its attitude. It points out that Germany and Austria have been in the habit

of furnishing belligerents with war supplies; for the disadvantage of not having been prepared in advance. The unpreparedness of Russia and England would sufficiently explain the situation at the end of a year of war. Our Civil War lasted four years, and it was in the second year that volunteer armies began to be veterans, while war supplies and materials were being adequately produced. In Germany there has begun a great discussion over the nature and character of the final settlement, on the assumption that Germany and her associates are destined to dictate terms to their enemies. A minority of thoughtful Germans are opposed to the permanent retention of Belgium and to certain other annexations. The dominant German opinion at present, however, seems in favor of annexation. What many Germans fail to see is that the future of Belgium is not going to be decided by Germany, but by the whole world. As these lines were written, on the 21st of August, the situation in the Balkans was attracting the attention of the world and seemed to be approaching an adjustment. M. Venizelos had become Premier of Greece, and was endeavoring to persuade King Constantine to join in a policy that would again harmonize Balkan interests. The prospects were increasing that the four great Allies would induce Serbia, Greece, and Rumania to accept territorial changes in Bulgaria's interest. In that case Bulgaria was prepared to attack Turkey, and all the Balkan powers would be coöperating on behalf of Serbia and against the Austrians, Turks, and Germans. This, of course, would at once change the character of the Dardanelles campaign.

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After
a Year
of War

The course of the great war during August and the latter part of July is set forth for our readers this month, as usual, by the pen of Mr. Frank H. Simonds, who is recognized as a very careful and accomplished student of the military and the political aspects of this colossal conflict. In England the gravity of the situation is better realized, and the Government is taking over for direct control a great number of factories engaged in the making of war supplies. The retreat of Russia seems chiefly due to a lack of munitions. The Germans have been flushed with success during recent weeks; yet it does not appear that the disasters incurred by the Allies are in any way conclusive. They merely point to a prolongation of the war, while the Allies with their larger resources of men and materials can gradually make up

Japan and
China

As a result of bribery charges connected with the Japanese general election last spring, the Okuma cabinet resigned office late in July, but within a few days the Premier, at the request of the Emperor, withdrew his resignation and formed a new ministry, in which, however, Takaaki Kato, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, who has been bitterly opposed because of his Chinese policy, refused to retain his portfolio. His successor is Baron Kikujiro Ishii, Japanese Ambassador to France, who is regarded as especially friendly to the United States. Recent Chino-Japanese relations are summarized by Dr. Iyenaga on page 338 of this REVIEW. It has been remarked that Japanese commercial interests are profiting by the falling-off of European trade in the Far East, while trade with the Philippines is growing.

*Meager Rate
Relief for
Western Roads*

On August 11 the Interstate Commerce Commission published its long looked for decision on the application of the Western railroads for an increase in freight rates. The roads had asked for certain changes in tariffs which would yield about \$7,600,000 additional revenue per year. The decision allowed increases on certain commodities estimated to produce \$1,600,000 a year, an amount equal to only one-fourth of one per cent. of the revenues of the roads affected. These roads number forty-one and conduct the transportation business in eighteen States from Alabama to North Dakota. This meager and grudging allowance in the present critical situation of railroad finances was a severe disappointment to the managers and to everyone who believes that one of the most important present requisites for a generally diffused business vigor is an orderly and decently profitable conduct of the great transportation companies.

*A Strong
Minority
Dissent*

The original petition of these Western roads asking for increases in rates equivalent to less than two per cent. of their gross revenues was considered by many unprejudiced observers to be too modest; the award of one-fourth of one per cent. is, therefore, a virtual defeat of the effort to put the houses of these great transportation companies in order, and the only comfort to be obtained from the decision was the bald fact that an increase, however insignificant, had been sanctioned. Commissioner Daniels gave a bold and straightforward minority opinion denying the consistency of the majority report, and charging it with failure to meet the vital question with courage. Commissioner Daniels scored cleanly in his comments on the propriety of using the shady records of the Rock Island, Frisco, and Alton management as arguments against giving railroads in general such rates as will enable them properly to serve the public and their stockholders. He declared the time has come to make guilt personal and that the question of railroad rates should not be governed by considerations of individual instances of corporate mismanagement. All clear-headed men will agree with him in this stand. Commissioner Harlan also dissented from the majority decision and held that the railroads were entitled to the increases requested on all the principal items. It was high time, too, that some one in authority should say what Commissioner Harlan added as to the waste and

*Some of the
Majority
Reasoning*

In its majority report, the Commission holds that whereas the credit of the carriers has suffered, it has not suffered more than the credit of industrial enterprises; that whereas the carriers are paying higher prices for materials and labor, these are phenomena not peculiar to the railroad industry. But the Commission seems to forget the kernel of the whole matter in ignoring the fact that the regulation of rates is peculiar to the railroad industry. When an industrial concern finds its unavoidable costs of capital, of material, and of wages making the expense of delivering its product too high in relation to the selling price, it simply increases that selling price, and it is a really remarkable obliviousness to the primary question involved to frame the argument as it has recently been framed. Comment on it is the more justified because this particular argument has appeared many times throughout the hearings before the Commission, from State commissioners and others who opposed the railroads' request for relief.

*Freight Rates
on Anthracite*

The day after the decision in the matter of the Western railroads, the Commerce Commission announced reductions in the freight rates on anthracite coal which will take from the hard-coal railroads something like \$8,000,000 a year in revenues. This sum represents the actual decrease in freight to be paid under the new rates, but the Commission points out that as 80 per cent. of the coal affected is shipped by companies virtually owned by the railroads, much of the loss to them from the reduced tariffs will be offset by the increased earnings of the coal companies they control, and that when allowances are made for these bookkeeping losses, the net reduction in revenue will amount to not more than one-fifth of \$8,000,000. This way of figuring depends for its validity, of course,

on the assumption that the independent coal operators will not seek to increase their sales by reducing prices to the public, as many of them may easily do now, in view of the smaller transportation cost. The best judgment seems to be, however, that the public will not gain at all through any reduction in the prices of its coal, and that the net result of this lowering of the tariff will be increased profits for some independent coal companies and for the middlemen. At the same time this decision was handed down, the Commerce Commission sanctioned increases of 25 cents per ton on anthracite coal from Pennsylvania mines to Chicago and other western points, a change which will decidedly lessen the blow of the general reduction to railroads like the Erie, Lehigh Valley, and Lackawanna.

*Relief Granted
the Express
Companies*

The express companies of the country have been operating for more than a year under rates as reduced by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The result is that whereas the net income of the leading concerns aggregated \$1,250,000 in 1913, the same companies showed an aggregate deficit of \$1,130,000 in 1915, and one of them, the United States Express Company, has given up the fight and gone out of business. The Commerce Commission has been conducting a long investigation of this express situation; it found that during the past year, when the express companies showed the heavy deficit noted above, they handled 2,225,928 more shipments than in the profitable year before, and reported a decrease in gross revenue for the larger volume of shipments of more than \$13,500,000. Under the lower rates, as prescribed by the Commission, the Adams Express Company received, on the average, for each shipment, twelve cents less than it received in 1913; the American Express Company, seven and one-half cents less; the Southern Express Company, nine cents less; and the Wells Fargo Company, six cents less. The Commission has now decided that the concerns are as a whole operating at a loss, and in a decision handed down on July 22 allows them to increase their rates on packages under one hundred pounds by about four per cent. of the former tariffs. The change will mean about \$5,000,000 a year to all the companies in additional revenue. It is hoped that this relief will enable the express companies to keep on in business, as there are a number of functions they can and do perform for which the parcel post offers no adequate substitute.

*Record
Harvests
Assured*

The Government monthly crop report that appeared on August 8 was the first that could be quoted with final assurance, as by that time the harvests were so far advanced that no important changes in the great cereal crops could be expected. The early reports of this year were highly favorable. Then came, in many important grain-raising areas of the country, persistent and heavy rains, which caused much damage and led to fears of reduced yield estimates when final figures were to be obtained. These final totals are, however, the reverse of disappointing. The total production of wheat is estimated at 966,000,000 bushels, 75,000,000 more than last year's crop, which was the largest ever grown in the United States. The increase over last year's record yield is due to the larger area planted, which in 1915 was 6,000,000 acres more than in 1914. The estimated yield per acre this year is 16.3 bushels, as against last year's actual yield of 16.6. The corn lands this year are estimated to produce 2,918,000,000 bushels; last year there was harvested 2,672,800,000 bushels. The 1915 crop of oats appears to be 1,402,000,000 bushels, against last year's yield of 1,141,000,000 bushels.

*Pacific
Mail Steamers
Are Sold*

There has been wide discussion of the La Follette Seamen's Act and the claims of the shipowners that its provision, requiring all vessels to employ crews 75 per cent. of which speak English, would drive the American flag from the Pacific, and the denials by the friends of the measure that it would have any practical harmful effect on what there is of an American mercantile marine. In the middle of August it was announced by the Pacific Mail Steamship Company that it had sold five of the largest and finest ships in the trans-Pacific service to the Atlantic Transport Company, a subsidiary corporation of the International Mercantile Marine, the huge but financially unsuccessful combination of transatlantic lines engineered by the late J. P. Morgan. The Pacific Mail Company is also understood to be offering the remainder of its fleet for sale, and its president has stated publicly that the company will go out of business, and that the reason for it is the La Follette Seamen's Act. When this occurs, there will be just one vessel crossing the Pacific under the American flag,—the *Minnesota*, belonging to the Great Northern Railroad. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has not paid a dividend in sixteen years.

Six of its vessels were the largest flying the American flag, and one of them, the *Manchuria*, is said to be the fourth largest ship in the world. The five liners sold to the Atlantic Transport Line will, for the present, operate under American registry, but it is thought that this is merely because of the obvious advantage under war conditions in the Atlantic trade. The opportunity to make the sale was a boon to the Pacific Mail Company in its rather desperate situation, and resulted, of course, from the war demands. Owing to the large volume of exports to Europe and, in even greater measure, to the withdrawal for war uses of vast tonnage of English and other ships, there has been more freight offered for the Atlantic voyage to the International Mercantile Marine vessels than they could carry.

*New Efforts
Toward a
Shipping Bill*

It is obvious that the Administration will, in the next session of Congress, renew its effort to obtain a Government ship-purchase bill on some such plan as that outlined in the measure defeated last winter. Secretary McAdoo is already actively championing the project. In an address at Greensboro, N. C., on August 4, he attempted to convince his hearers that the markets of Central and South America will be opened to us with much more facility and profit with the aid of a Government-owned mercantile marine, and that if there were an ample supply of American ships to carry cotton to Europe, the lower freights would give the planter from one to two cents per pound more than he is receiving at present. Secretary McAdoo is obtaining answers from the delegates to the Pan-American financial conference held in Washington last June to a long list of questions relating to shipping facilities and ocean rates. At President Wilson's request, the Interstate Commerce Commission is to make an investigation of transportation lines and rates between the United States and foreign countries. Shippers throughout the country have been asked to write to the Commission immediately, giving the fullest information about existing conditions. In the meantime, exports in American vessels have increased during eleven months of the fiscal year no less than 68 per cent., the shipyards of the country are working at a fever heat, and conditions are as different as could well be from those obtaining when the original Ship Purchase bill was offered and rejected. Those interested in the growth of American shipping and the use of the Panama Canal

will find some remarkable information presented in the authoritative article written for this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin.

*A Costly
Labor
Inquiry*

The Federal Commission on Industrial Relations expired by limitation on August 23, having expended \$500,000 of public money during the two years of its existence. The Commission was made up of nine members, three of whom represented employers of labor, three the membership of labor unions, and three the general public. President Wilson had appointed as representatives of the public the chairman, Mr. Frank P. Walsh, of Missouri; Professor John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, and Mrs. Florence J. Harriman, of New York. To represent the employers of labor he had named Mr. Harris Weinstock, of California; Mr. S. Thruston Ballard, of Kentucky, and Mr. Frederic A. Delano, of Illinois (succeeded later by Mr. Richard H. Aishton of the same State); and from the ranks of organized labor Mr. John B. Lennon, of Illinois; Mr. James O'Connell, of the District of Columbia, and Mr. Austin B. Garretson, of Iowa.

*Proposed
Federal
Commission*

The public has known little about the doings of this body, save what could be gathered from the more or less sensational reports of public hearings in various cities, which, in the opinion of Chairman Walsh, seem to have constituted the prime reason for the Commission's existence. The law prescribed other functions, however, which some of the members regarded as serious duties. It provided, for example, that the Commission should inquire into "the methods for avoiding or adjusting labor disputes through peaceful and conciliatory mediation and negotiations; into the scope, methods, and resources of existing bureaus of labor and into possible ways of increasing their usefulness." Those members of the Commission who have definite constructive ideals tried to center their activities, as much as possible, on this branch of inquiry. And while the Commission was unable to agree on the form or substance of a general report, the conclusions of Professor Commons, Mrs. Harriman, and Messrs. Weinstock, Ballard, and Aishton regarding a proposed Federal Commission on Industrial Relations deserve careful consideration. These members had at least a realizing sense of their responsibility to the country.

*Futility of
Mere
Law-Making*

Five of the nine members signed a report written by Professor Commons which took strong ground against further attempts at labor legislation until ways could be found to make existing laws enforceable. The common sense, as well as the admirable spirit, of the report is illustrated by the following sentence:

While recognizing the justice of much of these demands for new laws we are not placing them first in our report, but rather the methods of investigating conditions, of enacting legislation, of judicial interpretation, and administrative enforcement necessary to make them worth while as a real remedy.

The report also recognizes the fact that governments in themselves cannot be looked to for remedying evil conditions. Professor Commons and his colleagues hold that improvement must come through the coöperation with government of voluntary organizations,—employers' associations, labor unions, farmers' societies. For the administration of labor laws it is recommended that both State and Federal Industrial Commissions be created, all bureaus or divisions dealing with conditions of labor, including industrial safety and sanitation, workmen's compensation, employment offices, child labor, industrial education, statistics, etc., to be placed under the direction of such commissions. Following the recent tendency of labor legislation toward complete centralization in the hands of a single department, the commissioners advocate a system similar to that established in Wisconsin in 1911, in Ohio in 1913, and in New York during the present year. It is conceded that the existing Federal Department of Labor should be retained for educational and political purposes, while possibly a similar bureau might be created in large industrial States like New York and Pennsylvania.

*The
Convention at
Albany*

The New York Constitutional Convention at Albany continued to debate proposed amendments throughout the month of August. Among the important votes taken on outstanding measures was that of August 18 on the new plan for assigning the making of State budgets to the Governor rather than to the Legislature. Only four votes were recorded against this proposition, which was hailed by leading citizens of the State, including President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, as one of the most important

steps taken within recent years toward making State government both more efficient and more responsible. It was expected that the Short Ballot, which was fully discussed by Dr. Cleveland in our August number, would also receive an affirmative vote at the convention, and thus the two most important changes seriously considered by the delegates seemed likely to be adopted. The amendment offered by Mr. William Barnes forbidding the Legislature to pass any bill granting privilege or immunity to any class of individuals was defeated by a vote of 70 to 38. This amendment was aimed especially at minimum-wage legislation.

*Eminent
New
Yorkers*

Our obituary record this month includes the names of three distinguished citizens of New York City, who were also of national note. The eldest was the Hon. Benjamin F. Tracy, a lawyer of acumen and a veteran of the Civil War, who had served in the cabinet of President Harrison and who was regarded as one of the creators of our modern navy. He was eighty-five at his death, and his name had not appeared very frequently of late in the newspapers. But his mind was keen and active to the last; he held strongly for the need of increased national defense, and believed especially in the further development of the navy. The Hon. William M. Ivins had also, like General Tracy, been a prominent figure in the citizenship of the metropolis. He was a man of wide intellectual taste and accomplishments, and a lawyer of great ability. His death was possibly hastened by the strain of the great libel case of William Barnes against Theodore Roosevelt. He was Mr. Barnes' principal lawyer, and had conducted the case under conditions of ill health. Dr. E. R. L. Gould was a younger man, still in his prime, and a typical member of that group of citizens of New York whose public spirit and wide acquaintance with affairs have in so many ways assisted in the improvement of municipal government and the betterment of the people. He was a great authority upon housing and social conditions, was City Chamberlain in the administration of Mayor Seth Low, was a reformer in politics, and a friend and supporter of President Wilson, with whom he had been associated in student days at the Johns Hopkins University. He had in earlier years made important inquiries for the Government into housing and labor conditions in Europe, and had served more than one university as a professor or lecturer in the field of sociology and economics.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From July 21 to August 20, 1915)

The Last Part of July

July 21.—The United States sends a third note to Germany relative to the rights of neutral passengers on merchant ships; the German note of July 8 is declared to be "very unsatisfactory," because it fails to meet the real differences and proposes a virtual suspension of accepted principles of law and humanity; repetition of the incidents complained of must be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly."

It is learned that Australia has taken over Germany's island possessions in the Pacific which were seized by Japan.

July 24.—French troops in the Vosges Mountains carry an important German position south of Ban-le-Sapt.

July 25.—The American steamship *Leelanaw* is sunk by a German submarine off the northwest coast of Scotland, warning being given and the crew being towed to safety; the vessel was carrying flax (declared contraband by Germany) from Russia to Ireland.

July 27.—An official statement of British military losses up to July 20 places the totals at 61,384 killed, 196,620 wounded, and 63,885 missing; the naval casualties were 7929 killed, 874 wounded, and 303 missing.

July 28.—The British Admiralty announces that German submarine attacks on British merchant ships have resulted in the death of 1550 persons, 22 others being killed in attacks on neutral ships.

July 30.—Germany replies to the American note of June 26 regarding the sinking of the American sailing vessel *William P. Frye*, stating that a German prize court has held that the sinking was justified but that the owners should be indemnified; the alternative is offered of submitting the whole case to arbitration at The Hague.

A German gain of British trenches along a front of one-third of a mile at Hooze, in Belgium, is accomplished with the aid of flame projectors, a new method of warfare.

Austrian troops occupy Lublin, in the great enveloping movement on Warsaw, severing one of three railroad lines available for the withdrawal of Russian armies.

July 31.—The British steamship *Iberian* is sunk by a German submarine, after attempting to escape; six of the crew (including two Americans) are killed by shots from the submarine.

The First Week of August

August 1.—The beginning of the second year of war finds German troops occupying 20,450 square miles of enemy territory in the West (including nearly all of Belgium and a large section of north-eastern France), and 58,000 square miles of Russian territory in the East; the French occupy a small section of German land in Alsace, and the Russians hold a strip of Austrian territory in eastern Galicia.

Austrian and German reports of Russian sol-

diers made prisoners during July total 230,000.

Statistics of German wounded, for the nine months ending with April, show that 88.5 per cent. returned to service, 9.6 recovered but were unfit for further service, and 1.9 died.

The Russian Imperial Duma meets in session at Petrograd and votes unanimously not to conclude peace until Russia is victorious.

August 2.—Mitau, capital of the Russian province of Courland, is captured by the Germans in an offensive movement aimed to drive southward behind the strongly fortified line upon which the Russians are falling back from Warsaw.

August 3.—Three notes from Great Britain to the United States, relating to interference with American trade in the war zone, are made public at Washington; the notes constitute a legal argument to show that Great Britain is adhering to principles of international law as modified by modern conditions and by the exigencies of the present situation.

August 4.—A French prize court confirms the seizure of the American steamship *Dacia*, which had been transferred from German to American registry since the war began; the United States will protest the decision.

It is announced at Berlin that Major-Gen. Nicholas von Below, infantry commander, has been killed in action.

August 6.—German troops occupy Warsaw, the capital of Russian Poland and the third largest city in Russia; no serious defense was offered, the Russians having been content to withdraw their armies steadily eastward rather than risk a threatened envelopment of their whole force by a great German encircling movement.

August 7.—The Allied forces at the Dardanelles make a fresh landing of the Gallipoli Peninsula, in Suvla Bay, on the northern shore.

The Second Week of August

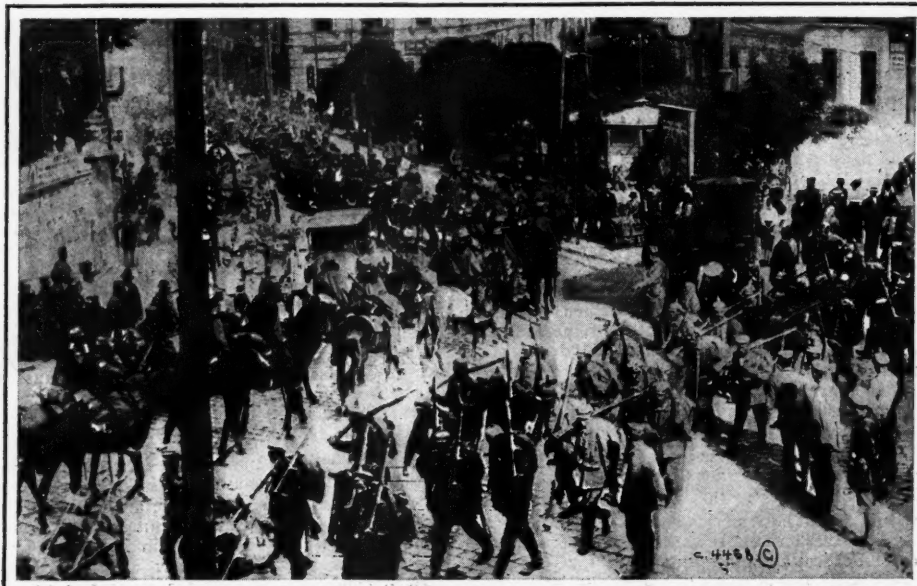
August 8.—It is reported in Petrograd and London that Germany has proposed a separate peace to Russia, through the King of Denmark; Germany would retain western Poland, now occupied, and Russia would be given Galicia (Austrian territory).

August 9.—The Turkish battleship *Kheyr-ed-Din Barbarossa* is sunk by a British submarine at the entrance to the Sea of Marmora.

The British forces in Belgium recover by assault the ground lost at Hooze on July 30.

German airships make a night attack on the east coast of England; the British Admiralty reports that no material damage was done, but that one man and thirteen women and children were killed; it is also stated that one Zeppelin airship was destroyed.

The Bulgarian Prime Minister, V. Radoslavov, is quoted as stating frankly that, if Serbia would



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ENTRY OF THE VICTORIOUS GERMAN AND AUSTRIAN TROOPS INTO PRZEMYSL, THE GREAT FORTRESS IN GALICIA RECAPTURED FROM THE RUSSIANS IN JUNE

cede Serbian Macedonia, Bulgaria would send her armies against Turkey within twenty-four hours.

August 10.—The British auxiliary cruiser *India* is sunk by a German submarine off the Norwegian coast, and the torpedo-boat *Lynx* is sunk by a mine in the North Sea.

August 11.—An official British statement declares that recent activity by Australian and New Zealand troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula has nearly trebled the area occupied by them.

An Italian submarine torpedoes and sinks the Austrian submarine *U 12*.

Austrian destroyers attack points on the Adriatic coast of Italy.

August 12.—It is stated that during the first year of war France spent \$384,000,000 in feeding the families of soldiers and workers thrown out of employment; 3,000,000 persons are receiving allowances.

August 13.—The United States replies to Austria's protest against the sale of war supplies by American manufacturers for the use of the enemies of Austria and Germany; the reply maintains that the United States, for its own future safety, must recognize the right of a belligerent to purchase munitions from neutrals, and cites instances of the export of such articles from Germany and Austria to belligerents in past wars.

The British transport *Royal Edward* is sunk in the Egean Sea by an enemy submarine, nearly 1000 men being drowned.

The Austrian submarine *U 3* is sunk by a French destroyer in the lower Adriatic.

The Third Week of August

August 15.—Throughout the United Kingdom all persons between the ages of 15 and 65 furnish

data to the Government regarding their ability to perform work for the state.

August 16.—Upon the assembling of the Greek parliament, the strength of the Venizelos supporters (confirmed by the recent elections) brings about the resignation of Premier Gounaris and his cabinet.

A German submarine bombards points on the western coast of England.

August 17.—In the *Frye* case, the United States accepts Germany's offer of indemnity, but proposes that the alternative of reference to the Hague Court be also adopted as a method of interpreting the disputed points.

Kovno, the northernmost Russian fortress on the second line of defense, is carried by storm by German troops; more than 400 cannon are taken.

August 17.—A minor naval engagement between squadrons of British and German destroyers, off the Danish coast, results in the sinking of a small British cruiser and a destroyer.

A third German airship raid on England within ten days causes the death of ten persons near London.

August 18.—Ex-Premier Venizelos accepts the King's invitation to form a cabinet in Greece.

August 19.—The White Star liner *Arabic* is torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine, while south of the Irish coast on her way to New York; about twenty passengers (including several Americans) are drowned.

It is announced that the Allies have agreed to declare cotton contraband of war.

August 20.—A German official statement announces the capture of the Russian fortress of Novo Georgievsk, with more than 20,000 prisoners.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From July 21 to August 20, 1915)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

July 22.—The Interstate Commerce Commission allows advances in express rates (except in the zone north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi), which will increase the companies' revenues by 3.86 per cent.

July 23.—The resignation of James M. Sullivan, Minister to Santo Domingo (against whom charges had been preferred and investigated), is accepted. . . . President Wilson leaves Washington for a second vacation period at his summer home in New Hampshire.

July 27.—The city of Nashville is placed in the hands of a receiver following charges of misappropriation of funds; the Mayor, several City Commissioners, and the Treasurer are suspended.

August 3.—The Mississippi Democratic primary results in the nomination of Lieutenant-governor Theodore G. Bilbo for the Governorship by a majority vote.

August 4.—Official figures show that immigration for the year ending June 30 was the lowest since 1899; 326,700 immigrants were admitted, as compared with 1,213,480 during previous year.

August 7.—In the Kentucky primaries, the following are nominated for Governor: ex-Congressman Augustus O. Stanley (Democrat), E. P. Morrow (Republican), and Fred J. Drexler (Progressive).

August 11.—The Interstate Commerce Commission permits increases in carload freight rates on forty-one railroads in the Middle West; the equivalent of a 2 per cent. increase on the total freight revenues had been asked, but the increases allowed amount to less than half of 1 per cent.

August 12.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders reductions in the freight rates on anthracite coal, amounting to from 10 cents to 80 cents a ton; it is estimated that the reduction in annual revenue will total \$8,000,000. . . . President Wilson returns to Washington from his summer home in New Hampshire, to deal with the Mexican situation.

August 17.—The Interstate Commerce Commission severely arraigns the financial operations of the Rock Island Railroad, including the recent receivership proceedings.

August 18.—The New York Constitutional Convention agrees almost unanimously upon its first important proposal, for an executive State budget.

August 19.—The New York Constitutional Convention unanimously adopts a section aimed to remedy the law's delays by revising legal procedure in civil cases.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

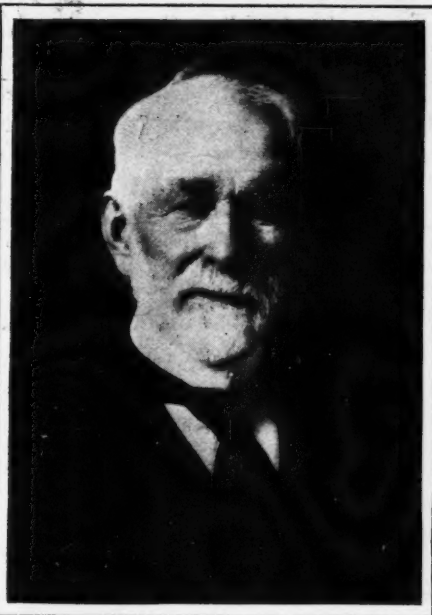
July 21.—The voters of Alberta Province, in Western Canada, adopt prohibition by a large majority.

July 25.—Juan Luis San Fuentes is elected President of Chile.

July 27.—A new revolutionary movement breaks out in Haiti, under the leadership of Dr. Rosalvo Bobo; in retaliation 160 political prisoners (including ex-President Orestes Zamor) are executed by Government officials.

July 28.—Haitian revolutionists remove President Guillaume Sam from the French legation where he sought refuge, and kill him; the American cruiser *Washington* arrives and lands marines and sailors to prevent further rioting.

July 29.—The Japanese Minister of the Interior, Viscount Oura, resigns under charges of



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

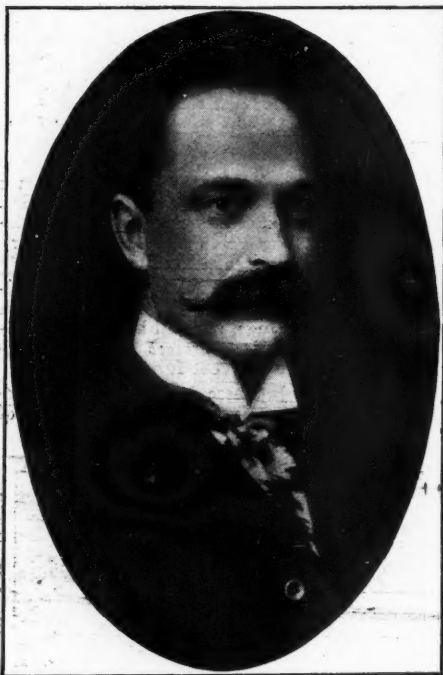
THE LATE GEN. BENJAMIN F. TRACY
(See page 284)

receiving money from a candidate during the recent elections.

August 2.—Mexico City for the fourth time comes under the control of the Carranza faction, General Gonzales occupying the city without resistance from the retiring Zapatistas.

August 6.—Bernardino Machado (former Premier) is elected President of Portugal, succeeding Manuel de Arriaga, resigned. . . . Elections in Manitoba Province, Canada, result in an overwhelming victory for the Liberals, due to graft exposures in the recent Conservative administration.

August 8.—Premier Okuma of Japan decides to withdraw his resignation, at the request of the



DR. ELGIN R. L. GOULD
(Who died last month. See page 284)

Emperor; the cabinet is reorganized, Foreign Minister Kato declining a reappointment.

August 12.—The Haitian National Assembly elects Gen. Sudre Dartiguenave President; Dr. Bobo, the leader of the revolution, receives but three votes. . . . Baron Kikujiro Ishii (Ambassador to France) becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in the reorganized Japanese cabinet.

August 18.—Dr. José Pardo is inaugurated as President of Peru.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

July 29.—Rear-Admiral Caperton with a force of American marines and sailors from the cruiser *Washington* assumes control at Port au Prince after the killing of the Haitian President, Guillaume Sam, by revolutionists; two American sailors are killed during a night attack by "snipers." . . . The United States demands of Mexican factional leaders that railroad communication between Mexico City and Vera Cruz be reestablished, to permit the sending of food into the capital, where starvation conditions are reported.

August 5-6.—Upon the invitation of the United States, the diplomatic representatives at Washington of six Latin-American republics (the Ambassadors from Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, and the Ministers from Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala) meet with the American Secretary of State to discuss means for ending the chaos in Mexico.

August 11.—General Carranza protests to those American Governments participating in the conference on Mexican affairs, and warns of the "dangers which may ensue from a new policy of

interference." . . . The South and Central American diplomats meet in a third conference with the American Secretary of State, in New York City, and agree upon a policy.

August 13.—Continued disturbances in Haiti, at Cape Haitien (the second largest city) cause the American naval officers to extend their control to that region.

August 14.—The State Department at Washington makes public the text of an appeal sent to many Mexicans "who possess authority or power," signed by the American Secretary of State and the Ambassadors or Ministers at Washington of Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Guatemala; they propose a conference of those directing the armed movements in Mexico, and offer their friendly and disinterested help.

August 16.—Armed Mexicans cross the Rio Grande into Texas and attack an outpost of United States cavalrymen, killing a corporal.

August 19.—General Villa, leader of one of the chief factions in Mexico, formally accepts the good offices of the United States and other American republics.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

July 21-22.—Rioting incident to a strike of workers at the Standard Oil plant in Bayonne, N. J., results in the death of two strikers and the injury of a score of policemen, strikers, and on-lookers.

July 22.—A strike at the Remington Arms works in Bridgeport, Conn., involving several classes of employees, is ended by the granting of wage increases and shorter hours.

July 24.—The excursion-steamer *Eastland* turns over on her side at her pier in Chicago, 852 persons (mostly women and children) are drowned,—although the vessel is only partly submerged, in broad daylight, close to the shore, in the heart of a great city.

July 28.—The Bayonne strike of oil-works employees is ended, principally through the efforts of Sheriff Kinkead, of Hudson County, who quelled disorder and obtained a wage increase for the strikers.

July 30.—Charles Becker is electrocuted in Sing Sing Prison, New York, the fifth person to die for the murder of Herman Rosenthal, a New York City gambler about to make graft disclosures; at the time of the murder, in 1912, Becker was a Lieutenant of Police.

August 3.—A cloudburst at Erie, Pa., floods a large section of the city, drowning twenty-five persons and causing much damage to property.

August 4.—A strike of 60,000 workers on ladies' garments in New York City is averted by arbitration which awards wage increases.

August 9.—The Government crop report indicates an unprecedented wheat harvest of 966,000,000 bushels; the corn crop will amount to 2,918,000,000 bushels; all foodstuffs show an increase over last year's production.

August 10.—United States military authorities begin at Plattsburg, N. Y., an experiment in training American citizens for national defense; more than 1100 men of all ages present themselves for a course of thirty days' military instruction (see page 301).

August 11.—A shipment of \$50,000,000 worth of gold and securities from Great Britain to the United States, to equalize exchange, arrives safely at its destination in New York City. . . . The Vesuvius, Etna, and Stromboli volcanoes, in Italy, become active following a mild earth shock.

August 12.—The fall of an army aeroplane at Ft. Sill, Okla., causes the death of Captain George H. Knox and serious injury to Lieut. P. B. Sutton.

August 13.—The Pacific Mail Steamship Company sells to the Atlantic Transport Company five of its transpacific steamships; announcement had earlier been made that the provisions of the new Seaman's Law, regarding labor, would compel the company to discontinue its sailings.

August 16-17.—The Texas coast is struck by a severe tropical storm, which causes the death of nearly 200 persons and property damage amounting to millions of dollars; at Galveston the great sea wall holds, but buildings along the waterfront are destroyed; a United States military camp at Texas City is completely wrecked.

August 17.—A band of armed men in Georgia lynches Leo M. Frank after breaking into the State prison at Milledgeville; Frank had been convicted of girl murder, but the death sentence had been commuted to life imprisonment because of the doubtful character of the testimony. . . . The Missouri Pacific and the St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern railways are placed in the hands of receivers.

OBITUARY

July 21.—Wayland Richardson Benedict, emeritus professor of philosophy at the University of Cincinnati, 67.

July 22.—Sir Sanford Fleming, a noted Canadian railroad engineer and scientist, 88. . . . Mrs. Martha Baker Dunn, the author, 67.

July 23.—William M. Ivins, the eminent New York lawyer, 64. . . . Edwin C. Martin, former editor of *McClure's*, 64.

July 24.—Edward Bunnell Phelps, an insurance statistician and editor, 52.

July 26.—Jordan Lawrence Mott, one of the most prominent Eastern manufacturers, 85. . . . Sir James Augustus Henry Murray, editor of the Oxford English dictionary, 78. . . . John Jones Jenkins, Lord Glantawe, a notable figure in Welsh industry and politics, 80. . . . George Deardorff McCreary, ex-Congressman and former City Treasurer of Philadelphia, 70.

July 29.—Thomas Y. Crowell, the book publisher, 80.

July 30.—Dr. David Streett, dean of the Baltimore Medical College, 60. . . . Rev. Madison Charles Butler Mason, D.D., a noted negro educator, 56.

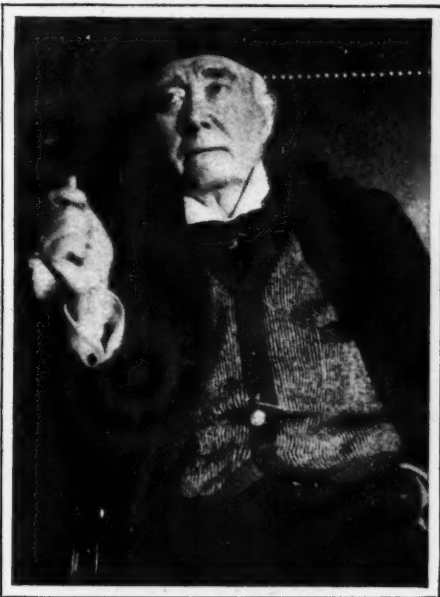
July 31.—Dr. William A. Croffut, formerly a prominent newspaper editor, author, and traveler, 80.

August 2.—Col. Gustavus Benson Brackett, for many years Chief Pomologist of the Department of Agriculture, 88.

August 3.—Dr. Joost Marius Willem van der Poorten-Schwartz ("Maarten Maartens"), the Dutch author, 56. . . . Rear-Adm. James M. Forsyth, U.S.N., retired, 73.

August 5.—Dr. George Thomas Little, for more than thirty years librarian of Bowdoin College, 58.

Sept.-3



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THE LATE WILLIAM M. IVINS

(See page 284)

August 6.—Gen. Benjamin F. Tracy, former Secretary of the Navy and a distinguished New York lawyer, 85. . . . Ferdinand Sulzberger, the New York meat-packer, 84.

August 7.—Rev. John Scrimger, D.D., principal of McGill Presbyterian College (Montreal), 66.

August 8.—Guy Stevens Callender, professor of political economy in the Sheffield Scientific School (Yale), 49.

August 9.—George Fitch, the author and humorist, 38.

August 10.—Prof. Thomas Bliss Stillman, of the Stevens Institute of Technology, a noted chemist, 63. . . . Charles Heber Clark ("Max Adler"), formerly a well-known humorist, 74.

August 13.—Rear-Adm. John McGowen, U.S.N., retired, 72.

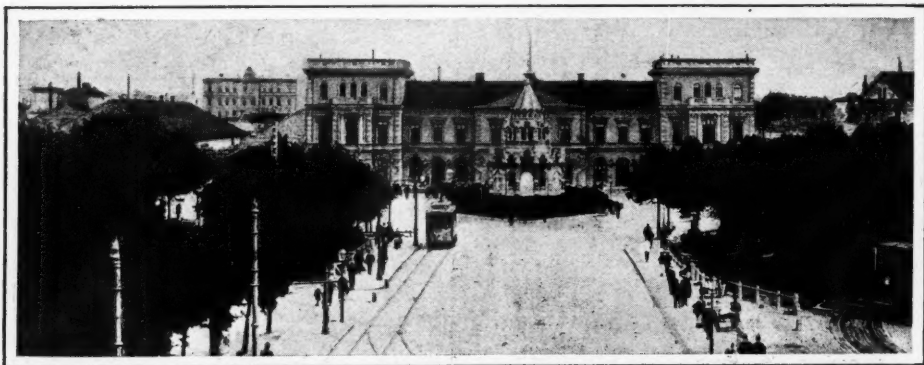
August 14.—John Wesley Harper, the publisher, 84. . . . Prof. Frederick Ward Putnam, of Harvard, a noted anthropologist and zoologist, 76. . . . Thomas Campbell Bagnia, the blind musician and composer, 64.

August 16.—Kalman von Szell, former Premier of Hungary.

August 18.—Dr. Elgin Ralston Lovell Gould, of New York, interested in movements for model tenements and loan systems for the poor, 55.

August 19.—Cardinal Serafino Vannutelli, Dean of the Sacred College, 81.

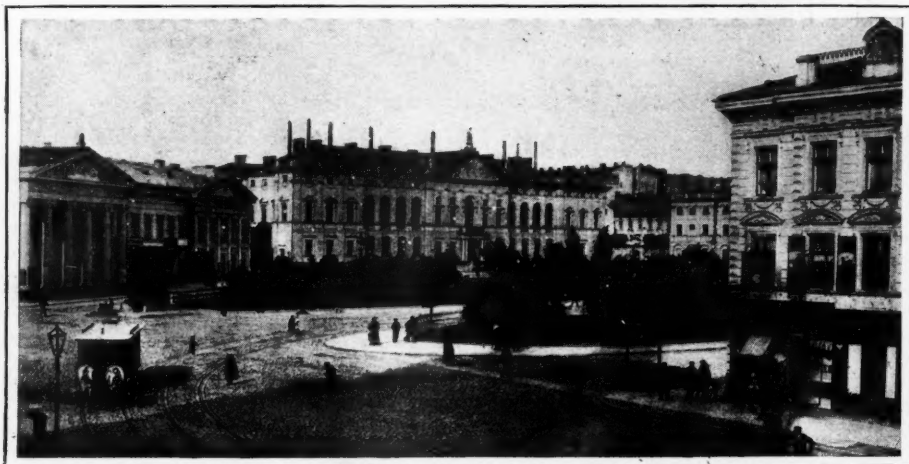
August 20.—Dr. Paul Ehrlich, the distinguished German medical scientist, 61. . . . Dr. Charles J. Finlay, who first discovered that yellow-fever is transmitted by the mosquito, 81. . . . James Robert Dunbar, formerly justice of the Superior Court of Massachusetts, 68.



THE RAILWAY STATION AT RIGA, RUSSIA'S BALTIC CITY THREATENED BY THE GERMAN ADVANCE



A STREET SCENE IN KOVNO, CAPTURED BY THE GERMANS LAST MONTH



THE KRASINSKI PLACE, IN WARSAW, THE GREAT POLISH PRIZE WON BY THE GERMANS



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE GERMAN CROWN PRINCE WITH HIS STAFF ON THE WESTERN BATTLE-FRONT

(Last month various activities of the Crown Prince's command, consisting of Wurttemberger troops, were reported from the Argonne forest west of Verdun. Some French trenches were taken by the aid of asphyxiating shells, but on the following day the French regained all except the first line of trenches.)



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A CANADIAN ARTILLERY CORPS SIGHTING A 4.7 GUN

HISTORY IN CARTOONS



THROWN TO THE WOLVES!
From the *Sun* (New York)

THE outstanding feature of the European War during the recent months has been the tremendous Eastern sweep of the German forces. Driving the Grand Duke's army before them out of Galicia, the Germans concentrated on and captured the great Polish stronghold of Warsaw. The great Russian retreat was chronicled by cartoonists the world over. Sacrificing the bear's whelp, is the way Mr. Carter, of the New York *Sun*,



"WE HAVE MADE THE RUSSIAN BEAR DEVELOP LEGS LIKE A GIRAFFE"
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



INTERNATIONAL EQUITY, ACCORDING TO JOHN BULL
From the *Star-Telegram* (Fort Worth)

Between Great Britain on the one hand, and Germany on the other, Uncle Sam's position as a neutral nation, endeavoring to maintain his rights on the sea, is somewhat exasperating, to say the least. Each of the powerful belligerents maintains the correctness of its views, and Uncle Sam's only satisfaction is an increasing accumulation of diplomatic correspondence.



UNCLE SAM, ALMOST SUBMERGED BY A MASS OF
DIPLOMATIC NOTES
From *Il Fischietto* (Turin)



"YOU SHOULDN'T MIND A LITTLE THING LIKE
THAT, SAM"
From the *World* (New York)



INTERNATIONAL LAW A BACK NUMBER
A BRITISH-GERMAN DUET: "It's out o' date!"
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



CLIPPING THE EAGLE'S WINGS
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



THE GERMAN REPLY

GERMAN GRETCHEN (to American tourist): "I have already done so much for you, that there will now be nothing left for me to do."

From Kladderadatsch © (Berlin)

Kladderadatsch, of Berlin, frankly suggests that Germany has reached the limit of her concessions to the United States, while *Punch*, of London, thinks that Uncle Sam is ready to lay down his pen and proceed to load up his revolver.



BY WAY OF A CHANGE

UNCLE SAM: "Guess I'm about through with letter writing."

From *Punch* (London)

ATTENDING TO HIS CORRESPONDENCE
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)AUSTRIA'S DEFENCES AGAINST STARVATION
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)

UNITED WE STAND

North and South America getting together on the Mexican situation.

From the *Daily News* (St. Paul)

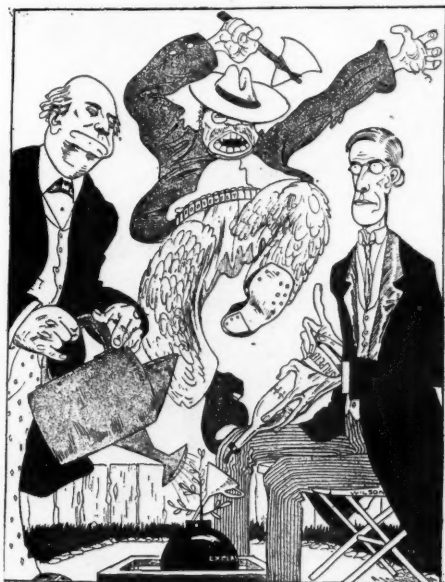


IN THE RESTAURANT "AU GRAND BALKAN"

(Chorus of guests, ordering what they all wish): "Here with that Macedonia dish." "Give me some more of the Turkey." "Another piece of that Albania pudding."

From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)

The question of Bulgaria's entrance into the War became very prominent last month. She had made known her price in a frank manner to both sides. The other Balkan powers, however, also have their territorial ambitions, as set forth by the cartoon above.



THE AMERICAN PEACE TREE

"The methods of all three—Bryan, Wilson, and Roosevelt,—in nurturing the tree are different, but the object is the same, namely, to secure the next Presidential election." (A Berlin view.)

From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)



THE SEA-SERPENT OF 1915 IS NO IDLE SUMMER TALE!

(A fact well borne out by the recent destructive exploits of the German "U" boats.)

From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



A PLEASING TUNE
From the Tribune (Los Angeles)

Public sentiment in favor of the general "jacking up" of our national defenses has increased to a marked extent. The administration is actively investigating the condition of our various defense services, and Secretary Daniels is proceeding with the formation of his board of naval advisors and civilian inventors. Military matters are also interesting our citizens personally, as witness the successful college students' and business men's camps for the training of volunteer officers.



TIME REMOVES THE FIRST IMPRESSION
From the Times-Dispatch (Richmond)



JUST LOOKING THINGS OVER
From the Star (Washington, D. C.)



A LARGER UMBRELLA FOR UNCLE SAM
From the News Tribune (Duluth)



TRAMP, TRAMP, TRAMP, THE BOYS ARE MARCHING!
One of the first fruits of the campaign for preparedness.
From the Sun (Baltimore)

THE INVENTORS' BOARD AND THE NAVY

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFERT

IT is one of the anomalies of warfare that the machinery for fighting and killing has been brought to its present ghastly perfection not by swashbuckling, bloodthirsty soldiers, but by mild-mannered, peace-loving civilians. True, both army and navy officers have exercised their ingenuity to heighten the terrors of battle, but theirs are rather academic improvements on the more daring contrivances of civilian mechanics and engineers. Who gave us the turreted ironclad? Not a naval officer, but Ericsson, a marine engineer. Who invented the machine-gun, which squirts death every day on a dozen European battlegrounds? Not a colonel or a captain, but Hiram Maxim, a brilliant American mechanic. Who gave the battleship its quick-acting gun-elevating mechanism? Not an ensign or a commodore, but Janney, an American mechanical engineer. Who invented the motors for turning turrets rapidly? Not a lieutenant, but H. Ward Leonard, one of Edison's former assistants. Who planned the submarine? Not a Hull or a Nelson, but Robert Fulton, an artist.

So, one after another, the really important, the really epoch-making inventions comprising the mechanism of warfare prove to be the conceptions of romantically imaginative but lamb-like private citizens. Usually their contrivances are anything but perfect. They must be developed, and it is in their development that the professional soldier has been most serviceable.

It is thus not only with the guns and submarines of war, but also with the telephones and electric lights of peace; for the inventions that have made the United States and other countries commercially great came not from within given industries, but from without. Always it is a dreamy pioneer, an intrepid free-lance, aflame with enthusiasm, who enriches his country with a radically new labor-saving device or way of utilizing energy. Morse was a portrait painter when he first turned his attention to the telegraph; Bell was a teacher of deaf-mutes when he

began his experiments with the telephone; Edison was a patentee of telegraphs and phonographs when he gave us the incandescent lamp; Marconi was a mere lad with a liking for physics when he conducted his first successful experiments in wireless telegraphy. With the single conspicuous exception of Edison not one of the inventors who have blazed new trails gave to the world devices that could be marketed at once. Development was necessary,—development by less brilliant intellects identified with the industries that were benefited.

HARD ROAD OF THE GOVERNMENT INVENTOR

If, then, the history of invention offers any criterion Secretary Daniels' plan for mobilizing our leading inventors and scientists for the upbuilding of the navy's *matériel* must at once strike everyone as commendable. The tales of mute, inglorious inventors who for lack of appreciation fill paupers' graves are no doubt exaggerated. But they are surely numerous enough to justify any reasonable method of removing the obstacles thrown in the mechanical genius's path by narrow-minded conservatism. As it is, the introduction of a new machine with marvelous possibilities is as much a test of optimism and persistence as of mechanical ingenuity.

We have been told that the Navy Department has rejected inventions only to conclude that they had merit after they had been adopted by foreign governments. That is not literally true. The fault rests with Congress rather than with the Navy. Under the present system no adequate sum is appropriated for the systematic examination of new devices. A few inventors have been financed by the Navy Department; but the best that can usually be done is to ask the inventor to submit a full-sized model at his own expense for test. If the invention is a new type of gun for super-dreadnoughts the inventor must spend perhaps \$50,000 and haul the weapon at his own risk and expense to the Government's proving-grounds. A

few rounds are fired; the gun turns out to be badly constructed, although the fundamental principle is correct; a report is submitted to the Secretary of the Navy that the piece failed. The possibility of raising capital for further experimenting is woefully slim in the face of that adverse official judgment.

MISTAKEN TESTING SYSTEM OF OUR ARMY AND NAVY

If this same system were followed by business men we would have no telephone, no incandescent lamp, no linotype machine, no printing-press, no automatic shoe-making machinery. Every invention is the product of an evolution. Success in mechanics is founded on instructive failures. Edison slaved month after month before he produced the first operative incandescent lamp,—an exhausted bulb in which a thread of charred cotton glowed feebly for a few hours. Bell's first telephone could hardly transmit speech, and when the first conversation with the instrument was held between New York and Boston the man at the transmitter had to yell greetings and songs beneath a blanket so as not to disturb the inmates of the boarding-house in which he happened to be living. One million dollars in money and a decade in time were spent before the "pulling-over" machine, now part of every shoe-factory's equipment, was brought to commercial perfection. It cost a great German chemical manufacturing firm nearly two million dollars to devise that wonderful process of making synthetic indigo which has completely destroyed the natural indigo industry of India. No great invention, whether it be a poem or a dynamo, ever leaped from the brain, perfect in every detail. And yet the whole system of testing inventions for both the army and the navy presupposes finality.

RESULT: WE COPY FOREIGN MODELS

What is the result? Our navy is but a reproduction of the best to be found abroad. Within the last twenty years we have originated nothing radical. Our naval constructors designed super-dreadnoughts only after England had shown them the way. We have not a single battle-cruiser in commission,—the type of 25-knot ship that made the engagement in the Bight of Heligoland sensationally historic. Our submarines have too few "mother" ships such as Germany has designed to act as floating docks and as bases of supplies. Our target practise is

woefully behind that of the Germans and English. If a manufacturer were to follow the same Chinese plan of copying his more enterprising rivals, there would be no Ford in the automobile industry, no Carnegie in the steel industry, no Rockefeller in the oil industry.

MANUFACTURERS LUKEWARM

The officers of the Navy are not blind to the absurdity of demanding from the inventor of guns and ammunition what no factory proprietor expects from a designer of machine tools or steam engines. Congress has made no provision for the inventor. That is why the Navy seems lax. Certain moneys are appropriated for building certain ships and for carrying on a certain amount of auxiliary work. Nothing is set aside for the inventor,—at least no substantial sum. No doubt Congress fondly imagines that manufacturers of naval material will spend their own money for the encouragement of the inventor. But manufacturers are not so commercially obtuse. If they invest millions in a plant for making guns it is because the machinery can be utilized for other, more peaceful purposes. No steel plant would pay dividends if it made only armor and guns for the Navy.

A BOARD TO ANALYZE NEW IDEAS

In a single month, since the beginning of the present war, the Bureau of Ordnance alone has been asked to consider no less than one hundred and thirty-five proposals for the improvement of the Navy's fighting mechanism. Officers already over-burdened with work must pass upon the suggestions. Ninety per cent. of the ideas submitted are so obviously old or absurd that they can be politely dismissed at once. But what of the other 10 per cent.? Who knows that among them may not be found a radical departure in gun construction of terrible possibilities? Or a method of keeping a battery on a target far more effective than that at present in use? Clearly we need a special bureau or board which shall have no other function than that of studying new ideas from every angle and for testing them at the Government's expense.

NEED OF A RESEARCH LABORATORY

To Mr. Edison we owe the excellent suggestion that a laboratory be established for research and for the development of promising schemes. No one appreciates more keenly than he the need of investigation and experiment. Did he not send men to the utter-

most parts of the earth in quest of fibres and grasses that might prove available for the making of carbon-lamp filaments? Did he not himself conduct literally thousands of experiments before he hit upon a particular variety of Japanese bamboo, only to discard that eventually in order to spin a filament from a solution of guncotton? Did he not fail a hundred times before he produced a marketable phonograph?

Such is the task of improving the highly complex organism of a battleship that a research laboratory is a vital necessity if the lay inventor is to be encouraged. No one man is omniscient enough to devise, unaided, new steels, new powders, new compressed foods, new torpedoes. Modern invention is more than ever the result of cooperative effort. The new gas-filled tungsten incandescent lamp which has so wonderfully cheapened electric lighting was developed not by a single superb intellect, but by a regiment of chemists, metallurgists, physicists, microscopists, photometricians, and spectroscopists, working together unobtrusively in the splendidly equipped laboratories of a great electric company, one man concerning himself only with gas pressures, another with the physical properties of wire, a third with the improvement of lamp bases, a fourth with the discovery of a better glass,—the results achieved by all being ultimately welded together in a product which is improving not only year by year but month by month.

THINGS THAT SHOULD BE TRIED OUT BY THE NAVY

What may not be expected from a similarly conducted naval laboratory? Take the single problem of gun erosion alone. Everyone knows that the rifles of our battleships may be fired scarcely two hundred times; it is assumed that the hot gases from the explosives pit and score the bore of a gun so that it must be returned to the shops in order to be relined. We have some plausible theories to account for gun erosion, but no facts. Only laboratory research will give them to us; and when we have them we may be able to invent guns of more resistant steel alloys,—guns that can perhaps be fired a thousand times or more.

The problem of gun erosion is but one among a hundred that leap to the mind. Battleships seem helpless against torpedoes. Can no adequate protection be devised? A submarine has only to dive in order to escape a surface enemy. Can no form of under-water submarine-chaser be invented? In the battles

that occurred off Coronel and Falkland Islands sailors were drowned by the hundred. Cannot life-rafts of sufficient size and buoyancy be carried and stored away even though decks must be cleared for action before going into battle? A torpedo can be directed from a submarine only after an officer has by compass taken the bearings of the hostile ship upon the destruction of which he is bent. Is there no way of deranging his compass and thwarting him?

The development of a single invention may mean a revolution in strategy. Just as the telescope made modern astronomy possible, just as the oil immersion lens opened up the whole field of modern pathology, so unexpected effects may follow the adoption of an apparently minor improvement worked out in a laboratory.

But once a laboratory is established,—a laboratory in which the foremost scientific investigators and engineers are installed,—it may be questioned whether we need a supervising board of civilians. The Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Mines, the Bureau of Standards, and other government institutions conduct an immense amount of extremely useful scientific research for the benefit of farmers, miners, and manufacturers; but no one has yet suggested that civilians shall direct their investigations. If an inventor of telephones patents a method of talking from San Francisco to New York his discovery is passed upon not by the board of directors of a telephone company, but by trained engineers. Indeed, the directors never hear of the inventor in the first instance at all. The corporation's research laboratory is the inventor's court of first and last resort. Only if the invention is worth purchasing are the directors consulted. Establish Mr. Edison's laboratory and the Daniels Board becomes superfluous.

INVENTORS TO PASS ON INVENTIONS

There still remains the question whether a board of inventors composed of Edison, Orville Wright, and other prominent inventors will really serve its purpose. It must accomplish something merely because the public expects action of some kind; but it may be doubted if it will prove an ideal organization. Inventors are not always the most charitable judges of inventions,—particularly the inventions of competitors. When John Ericsson submitted the plans of the *Monitor* to Napoleon III, he learned what it means to have his schemes judged by a rival. Napoleon gave Ericsson's drawings to Dupuy de

Lôme, probably the boldest engineer and inventor that France ever produced,—the type of man who would grace any technical committee of public safety. Dupuy de Lôme rejected Ericsson's plans. Why? He was the inventor of an excellent ironclad himself. If such occurrences are typical, what may not be expected when the improver of a torpedo submits his ideas to a board one of whose members is himself an inventor of torpedoes? The patent infringement suits that make dreary reading in law reports supply evidence enough that inventors, like opera tenors, are inoculated with the germ of jealousy.

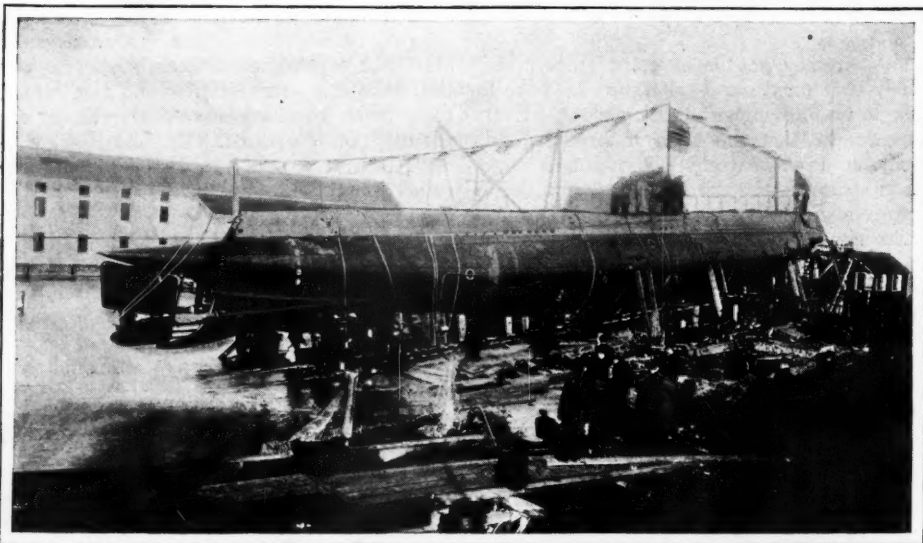
THE ENGLISH BOARD OF SCIENTISTS

The idea of invoking the aid of the most imaginative and at the same time the most practical minds in the country for the benefit of the Navy is not original with Secretary Daniels. In England H. G. Wells has long conducted an energetic newspaper campaign for the purpose of compelling the British War Office and Admiralty, by the sheer force of public opinion, to accept the advice of the leading British scientists and thus to place the army in France on a plane of technical efficiency at least comparable with that of the German enemy. He has succeeded so far that England has at last bestirred herself to the point of creating a board which is to consider the suggestions of laymen.

How strikingly different is the genesis of the American and British Boards! In Eng-

land a whole nation must be shaken out of its apathy, out of its almost sullen indifference to organized scientific research. In the United States, Congress must be prodded into taking a livelier interest in our national defenses. That explains at once the difference between the English Board (composed as it is of Admiral Fisher, a great naval officer, Sir J. J. Thomson, a great physicist, Sir Charles A. Parsons, a great engineer, and Doctor George T. Beilby, a great industrial chemist) and the American board composed of distinguished inventors whose remarkable achievements have in years past inspired column after column of newspaper comment and admiration. Not one of the members of the English board is as conspicuous a public figure as Thomas A. Edison. Indeed, Edison is probably better known to London taxicab drivers than Sir J. J. Thomson or Doctor George T. Beilby.

Swayed as our legislatures are by popular opinion, Secretary Daniels has acted shrewdly. Congress must be shaken into activity by an advertising scheme of national proportions. The willingness of Edison to head the Board is a spectacular advertisement. Reject the advice of an Edison, the greatest inventor that America or any other country has ever produced? Congress can hear the hisses of the multitude in its mind's ear. That is why we may expect decisive action for the benefit of the Navy when the House and the Senate convene again.



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

ONE OF THE NEW OCEAN-CROSSING SUBMARINES OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY—THE G-3
(She can cross the Atlantic and return without renewing her supply of oil fuel)



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SWINGING ALONG LIKE A TROOP OF REGULARS

THE PLATTSBURG RESPONSE

A CITIZENS' MOVEMENT TOWARD MILITARY PREPAREDNESS

BY WILLIAM MENKEL

PLATTSBURG, in northern New York, is picturesquely situated on the western shore of Lake Champlain. Besides being a United States customs port and a thriving manufacturing community, it is an attractive summer resort, and has interesting military and historical associations. Here is located an army post with barracks that are among the largest in the United States. Off Valcour Island near-by, on October 11, 1776, the English and American fleets, commanded, respectively, by Benedict Arnold and Sir Guy Carleton, fought the first naval battle that ever occurred between Great Britain and the United States. During the War of 1812 Plattsburg was the headquarters of the American forces on the Northern frontier. The famous battle of Lake Champlain, in which Commodore McDonough defeated a British fleet, took place in Plattsburg Bay, and in a land action in the vicinity General McComb repulsed a superior British force.

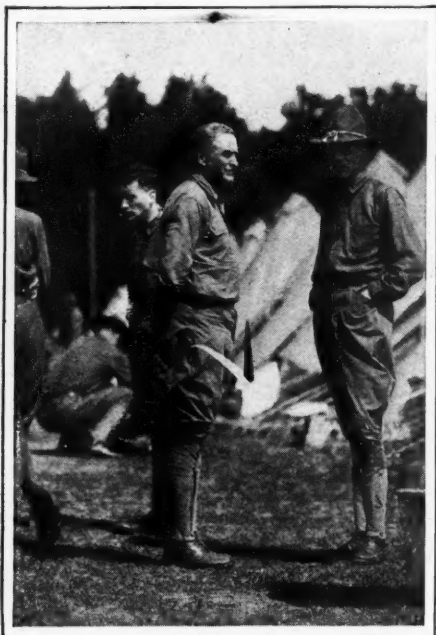
But last month Plattsburg received more attention from the country at large than ever before in its history. This was owing to the fact that there was conducted here a mil-

itary school more unique than any ever held on American soil,—or anywhere else for that matter.

Nearly twelve hundred men,—enough to form eight full companies at war strength,—gathered here on August 10 for a four weeks' course of military instruction. This alone did not make the encampment significant. It was the type of the men, the work they accomplished, and the spirit of it all, that gave the enterprise its remarkable character.

THE UNUSUAL PERSONNEL

For these were not boys from a military academy, nor was it a college students' military instruction camp, such as its immediate predecessor at this ideal spot. The pupils here were business and professional men, prominent in public affairs and in private life. Among them were diplomats,—including an ex-ambassador,—several ex-governors, high city officials, financiers, lawyers, college professors, writers, physicians, engineers, and merchants, as well as noted sportsmen, and a generous sprinkling of humble clerks. They came mainly from the big cities of the East,—Boston, New York, Phil-



PRIVATE ROBERT BACON
(Ex-Ambassador to France)

adelphia, Chicago, Baltimore, and Washington,—with large groups from many other widely scattered sections. Twenty-six States in all, and the District of Columbia, were represented in the camp. Some men came from as far south as Louisiana and others from the States of Colorado and California. More than 90 per cent. of them were university graduates, and the professional or business experience of the remaining 10 per cent. or so had enough value to bring the general standard of intelligence up to a very high average. Not more than a third of the men had ever had any previous military training.

The newspapers made much of this unusual personnel of the camp, the distinction and wealth of the men, and their personal doings. The emphasis placed on these features undoubtedly tended to give a wrong impression.

THEY MEANT BUSINESS

This was no mere play-soldiering, no sporting trip, or summer outing with military trappings. Social diversions were barred, and wives, sisters, and sweethearts were noticeably absent. These men came to work and to learn. They did both in dead earnest. Shunning publicity to the best of their ability, they indulged in no spectacular personal "stunts" for the benefit of the daily press.

Of idle jesting about the business in hand there was none. The orders of the day, self-imposed, and obeyed to the letter, were for hard, steady work and absolute submission to discipline.

Men like the Mayor of New York, chief of an army of 60,000 city employees, and Commissioner Arthur Woods, in authority over New York's police force of nearly 12,000 men (which, by the way, is more than one-third of the mobile army now in the continental limits of the United States), did duty submissively as privates. In more than one case men obeyed orders given by those who in private life are their subordinates. With the donning of their khaki uniforms the personalities of all these eminent gentlemen were completely merged with the mass,—ex-governors and ex-ambassadors, mayors, commissioners and so on, becoming simply Private Smith or Private Jones, and the whole group forthwith plunging into the serious business before them. That business was to learn, during their brief course, all that they possibly could of the real work of a soldier.

All branches of modern army service were represented in the camp,—infantry, cavalry, artillery, machine-gun battery, motor transportation, and signal, medical, and sanitary



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DR. T. E. DARBY, CAMP PHYSICIAN, INOCULATING
THE MEN AGAINST TYPHOID



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

GENERAL WOOD, THE GUIDING SPIRIT OF THE CAMP, AND HIS CAMP STAFF

(From left to right: Capt. Halstead Dorey, Camp Commander; Col. E. F. Glenn, Chief of Staff of the Eastern Department; Major-General Leonard Wood, Commander of the Eastern Department; Col. J. B. Bellinger; and Capt. Gordon Johnston, Adjutant of the Camp.)

corps. The use of motor-cars, notable for its importance in the European war, was in the nature of an experiment here, for no such equipment has as yet been tried in our army. This automobile division, together with the machine-gun troop of some sixty men, was under the command of Captain R. C. Bolling. The cars were loaned by various manufacturers, and consisted of officers' reconnoitering car, searchlight car, hospital car, a car with a machine-gun mounted upon it, and a dozen or so of motor-trucks and other automobiles.

AND THEY WORKED HARD

No men ever worked harder at the business or,—according to the testimony of army experts,—achieved more in the same time. The day's routine, from the reveille call at 5:45 in the morning to 10 o'clock taps at night, was crowded with tasks. Setting-up exercises, infantry and cavalry drill, gun sighting and aiming and artillery practise, map-reading and signalling, occupied the day until supper-time at six o'clock. Then the men gathered in a large semi-circular group on the parade-ground and listened to a lecture on some phase of military work, or an address by a noted visitor. After the talk the men were really free to do as they pleased until bed-time. But the periods of

rest, both during the day and at night, brought no cessation of effort. Work went on voluntarily. All over the tented field, men drilled, or sat studying, or lay prone, practising the sighting of their rifles. Nor did these self-imposed tasks end with daylight. Walking over the grounds in the darkness of the night, one could hear short and vigorous commands, followed by the sound of tramping feet, and the thud of guns on the rain-soaked sod. Turning the corner of the company street, you would come upon the dimly outlined figures of a squad still hard at work. Further on, where there was a powerful electric light, forty or fifty men would be gathered in a group, and,—approaching to find what was holding the close interest of the men at this hour,—you could see Captain Dorey, or some other regular army officer, before a blackboard explaining some infantry formation. And everywhere, on benches, under the lights at the corners of the streets, or in their tents, men singly or in twos or threes, pored over their text-books.

GETTING AHEAD OF THEIR LESSONS

So grimly did these men go at their tasks, one would easily have obtained the impression that the enemy had fixed a time for landing on our shores, and that the day was not far off. They outran the pace set for



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LEARNING HOW TO OPERATE THE THREE-INCH FIELD GUNS

them and constantly got ahead of their lessons. The word "shirk" was not in their lexicons. Sick leave was reduced to a minimum by the men themselves. Less than 1 per cent. were absent from duty, and these only for serious reasons. Such thirst for knowledge is exceptional at any time. But here were men of large public and business

affairs, most of them past the text-book studying age, giving up four weeks of their precious time, doing heavy field work by day and knitting their foreheads over books at night. And such an array of books as these men had in their tents! Besides the Infantry and Cavalry Drill Regulations, the "Manual of Military Training," and the "Field Service Regulations," there were works on "Tactical Principles and Problems," "Elements of Military Hygiene," and "Military Map-reading." Some of this was "required" reading, but most of it optional. The demand for text-books actually exceeded the supply at the camp stores.

The earnestness with which the men worked, and the high standard of intelligence represented, told heavily in the results achieved. The rate of progress was ten times more rapid than that usually attained by men in this field. After only a few days' training the men maneuvered on the parade-grounds with splendid alignment, eliciting the applause of visitors and the praise of army officers. The "close order" marching, however, was far from being the main thing. That was simply for discipline. The real business was battle practise,—field work in extended order, lying on the ground and shooting, advancing over rough country toward the enemy, digging trenches and occupying them even when filled with water. This serious side of the business of fighting, the drab drudgery of the soldier's work



ONE OF THE MOTOR-CARS, WITH A MACHINE-GUN
(J. G. Milburn and Van Ness Merle-Smith)



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TEACHING THE MEN HOW TO HANDLE THEIR RIFLES (LIEUTENANT BULL AS INSTRUCTOR)

in modern warfare, was what received the greatest emphasis.

WHAT WAS ACCOMPLISHED

These men were not graduated as officers from this brief schooling. It was not intended that they should be. The four weeks' intensive course covered the work that occupies five or six months in the usual training of soldiers, and that gives men a good grounding in military education. With this experience they can go on next year where they have now left off. It is suggested that the study may be continued during the winter by means of correspondence. But if these men go no further in their work,—and they are not the type of men who quit,—they will still be far better qualified to become officers than men fresh from the shop, the desk, and the field. They have also become competent to choose the particular branch of the service to join in case of need,—whether the infantry, the cavalry, artillery, hospital, sanitation, or signal corps,—thus avoiding mistakes made by men in the Spanish War. Moreover, these civilians have come into intimate touch with an admirable body of regular army officers, and mutual profit has resulted. Those in charge of the camp, from Captain Halstead Dorey, the commander, and the Adjutant, Capt. Gordon Johnston, all down

the line, were soldiers and gentlemen of the highest type, whose instruction was courteously and efficiently given.

The success achieved at Plattsburg was highly gratifying to General Wood, as well as to everyone else who had opportunity for observation. It is worth noting that while attendance at this camp did not increase the obligation of the men to any future service with the colors, their spirit was such that there can be no doubt of their willingness to serve in time of need.

WHY THIS CAMP?

The thing grew from a very small beginning. A few men, becoming interested in our lack of preparation, were eager to secure some military instruction. General Wood gladly consented to help them, making the provision that they should gather a company of at least 75 or 100. He would doubtless have been gratified if no more than this number had turned out. After the movement had started, however, enthusiasm grew rapidly, and when the time came to start for Plattsburg over a thousand applications for enrollment had been received.

These men did not leave their affairs to attend the camp for pleasure, or for the novelty of the thing. Probably any of them would have chosen other methods for mere



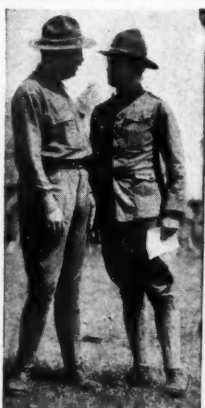
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D. A. REID, OF PITTSBURG



W. STUYVESANT CHANLER, HAMILTON FISH, JR.,
AND REGIS H. POST, EX-GOVERNOR OF PORTO RICO



Photo by American Press Ass'n.
GEORGE WHARTON PEPPER, OF PHILADELPHIA



NELSON O'SHAUGHNESSY AND DUDLEY
FIELD MALONE



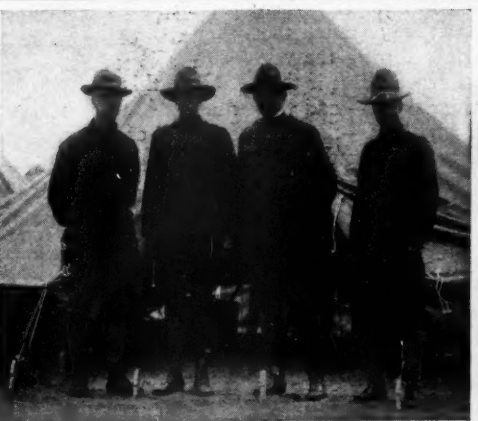
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J. W. PICKERING, OF
BOSTON, THE OLDEST
"ROOKIE" (AGE 67)



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(1) ARTHUR WOODS, POLICE COMMISSIONER OF NEW
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WHITE, AND (4) THEODORE ROOSEVELT, JR.



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RHINELANDER WALDO,
EX-COMMISSIONER OF
NEW YORK POLICE



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

MAYOR MITCHEL OF NEW YORK LEADING A CAVALRY CHARGE

summer recreation. Some of them had already had their outings. Others gave up their vacations to enlist in the camp. To all of them it meant the giving up of a twelfth of a year's time. And what was the meaning of it all? Why did they do this thing? To fit themselves for service to their country in time of need. To make of themselves efficient units in a system of national defense. One eminent member of the camp—who had brought two sons with him,—said he was there as a personal protest against our condition of unpreparedness. The men generally felt the same way. They were convinced of the necessity of putting the country in a better state of preparation for defense, and were willing to contribute their share of personal service promptly toward that end. They were not the kind who are ignorant of conditions either here or abroad. Intelligent and efficient, they were men who are used to going at a problem in a direct way, to achieve maximum results with a minimum expenditure of time. They saw a problem and applied themselves personally, promptly, and practically to its solution. The camp, in its spirit and methods, furnished a lesson in efficiency for the development of our nation's program of defense.

It is now fairly well known that the need of the country is not only for a

FALLACY OF THE VOLUNTEER SYSTEM

The plan prepared by the General Staff in 1912, and approved by the Secretary of War, calls for a force of 500,000 men, regulars and state militia, and in addition for the raising of 300,000 volunteers. Once such a plan is provided, the volunteers can be raised at

need, and they will be forthcoming when the call is issued. General Wood is assured of this, and has only the highest praise for the loyalty of the American volunteer, in spite of a false impression to the contrary. It is not the *volunteer*, or the volunteer *spirit* that General Wood decries. The thing condemned is the volunteer *system*, that leaves everything to be done at the last moment,—the idea that when the fire has already broken out, there is time enough to organize your brigade, skirmish about for hose, commandeer a cart, seek your water connections, and try to put your fire out. Even our volunteer fire departments do not work on



CAPT. R. C. BOLLING OF THE MACHINE-GUN TROOP (RIGHT)

this plan. Their apparatus has all been provided in advance and is ready for the call.

Similarly our military plans should be prepared in advance, the system duly worked out. The regular army should be enlarged immediately, with sufficient men for garrisoning our outlying possessions and the coast defenses, besides a reasonable force as a mobile army within the country. The raising of the volunteers may be left until the crisis comes. But the thing that cannot be left until that particular moment is the providing of officers to train these volunteers. Officers must be developed in time of peace, so as to be ready to take the million or so of Mr. Bryan's "between sunrise and sunset volunteers," and turn them from a disorganized, helpless mob into an effective machine. To leave the training of the officers to the last minute means the wanton sacrifice of the volunteers in the first shock of battle,—“deliberate murder by the nation,” as a great soldier termed it. There is a pathetic, warning note in the recent words of an Englishman whose son was sent to Flanders after only three months' training and was killed in action. Said he: “All the men of my family have been either in the army or the navy, and I am proud of that fact. The only thing I regret is that my boy did not have even a sporting chance.”

THE IMPERATIVE NEED OF OFFICERS

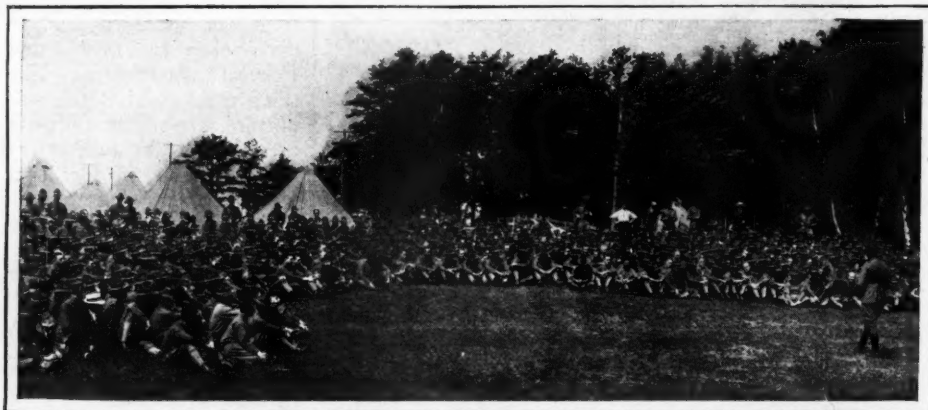
This, therefore,—the providing of officers for the training of men,—is the great purpose of such institutions as the Plattsburg camp of last month. To officer properly the million and a quarter volunteers that would probably be called for in a case of sudden need,—and modern war is sudden, with the aggressor well prepared,—would require some 40,000 officers. The sources of supply

for such officers are now limited. Retired military men who are still young enough to serve will furnish some, though not many. Those who have qualified through examinations and whose names are listed by the War Department, form another source, also limited. The military schools of high standing can supply a number. Then there are the agricultural and mechanical colleges which, under the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862, receive government aid on condition that they provide military courses. But the military instruction in these institutions is variable in amount and quality. It needs to be standardized. When this is done a large number of officers may be obtained from them.

All these sources, properly regulated by the government and under control of the War Department, will assure a regular annual supply of volunteer officers. But Congressional action is needed, and it is hoped this will be forthcoming as a result of the increasing interest in the subject of our national defenses.

Meanwhile, this camp of business and professional men at Plattsburg shows the temper of a portion of our citizens, and their determination to discharge their obligation to their country. The word obligation, by the way, needs emphasis, for it is an obligation, as General Wood has pointed out; not a merely voluntary affair, a free-will offering, but a debt to the nation, a blood tax as real as any other tax.

This highly successful Plattsburg experiment, the first camp of its kind in the country, was held under the auspices of the Eastern Department of the United States Army. It is gratifying to note that the Western Department has planned a similar camp for the coast, to open about the first of this month at the Presidio, at San Francisco.



THE EVENING LECTURE TO THE MEN MASSED IN A SEMICIRCLE ON THE GROUND

GERMANY'S GREAT SWEEP EASTWARD

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. WHY GERMANY WENT EAST

THE first phase of the Great War has long ago become clear in the mind of all observers. In August of last year the whole German military machine was directed against France with the purpose of eliminating the Republic from the conflict in the first six weeks. The failure at the Marne was followed by the repulse on the Yser. Not only was Germany unable to get a decision in her first campaign, but she lost much of the territory occupied by her troops in the first great advance.

More than this, as recent reports begin to make clear, Germany not only missed a decision, but she lost the great chance to occupy the Channel ports of France and thus obtain a base for her attacks upon Great Britain. When the main effort had been checked at the Marne and German troops were safe behind the Aisne, there came the second and last effort in the west, the drive at Calais, which was stopped at Ypres. With this drive German offensive operations in the west ended. The great deadlock was an accomplished fact after November 1, and the last shots of the Battle of Ypres were fired on November 15.

Meantime the whole face of the situation had changed. Austria had failed utterly in her mission. Hers was the duty to hold to Russia, while Germany disposed of France. For six weeks the Hapsburg armies were to hold back the Czar's masses. But in four, the Austrian armies had been routed and were fleeing from Lemberg to the San. Germany had not in six weeks disposed of France, but long before this time was up Russia was well along in the work of disposing of Austria.

It is well, then, to fix on November 1 as approximately the date when Germany decided to turn east, to reverse her program and, while holding back French and British troops in the west, strive to eliminate Russia. In the meantime, early in October, she had sent troops from the west to aid the Aus-

trians and Von Hindenburg's first drive at Warsaw, made with a relatively small force and a raid rather than a serious bid for decision, had temporarily relieved the pressure upon the beaten Austrians and held up the Russian advance toward Cracow and the Carpathians.

Successful in postponing Austrian disaster, Hindenburg's first campaign demonstrated clearly that Russia was becoming too formidable to be left to Austria. Austria, too, had become far too weak to be relied upon for any great feat of arms in the future, except when her armies should be reorganized by Germans and her masses stiffened by German contingents.

In December, then, we have the first of the long series of German operations in the East, which were designed to bring about a decision in this field. For,—note the unity and consistency of German thought as revealed in her strategy,—it was essential that Germany should get a decision over one of her foes, before they could collectively beat her down. What she had tried to do against France, it was now even more essential that she should accomplish against Russia. She had planned to bring her victorious armies west from France to destroy Russia. She must now fight a campaign to release all her eastern armies for use against the Allies in the west.

Thus, in a military sense we are witnessing to-day the closing operations in the second phase of the war. Germany's second bid for a decision is at the critical point. Within the next few weeks we shall know whether the decision that was not to be had in the west has been attained in the east and the victory lost at the Marne has been retrieved at the Vistula.

In view of the importance of the eastern operation, in view of the obvious fact that it constitutes the most colossal military operation of modern war, in numbers, in extent of territory, in strategic combinations, I purpose to devote most of my comment for this month to a slightly detailed review of



FIELD OF THE TEUTONIC ADVANCE AGAINST RUSSIA

To guard against such an attack Russia had long ago fortified the front of these two sides of the triangle. On the north nature had done much to aid the engineers, and the Niemen, Bobr, and Narew rivers, with surrounding swamps, made a prime military obstacle, which was strengthened by fortresses at various points. Kovno, Ossowetz, Lomza, Ostrolenka, Rozan, and Novo Georgievsk in a line from east to west covered the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad, along the whole face of the East Prussian frontier, whence a German attack might be expected.

the eastern campaign and leave to another number the discussion of other phases of the war, as yet wholly insignificant by contrast.

II. THE EASTERN BATTLEFIELD

At the outset of such a discussion it is necessary, once more, to recall the main features of the geography of the eastern battlefield as it affects the military operations. Russian Poland, extending into the territory of the Central Powers, forms a gigantic salient, is more or less suggestive of a big rubber ball held in the mouth of a dog. The upper teeth are supplied by East Prussia, the lower by Galicia.

The military geography is quite different from the political. This may be indicated by the lines of the Petrograd-Warsaw and Kiev-Warsaw railroads, which form the sides of a great triangle, of which Warsaw is the apex. Only so long as these railroads were in Russian hands could Russia hold Warsaw. If these railroads could be cut, while the mass of the Russian armies were about Warsaw, that is west of the points where the lines were cut, then they might be enveloped, captured, or at the least, driven in a confused mass eastward through the gap between the invaders coming north and south.

On the south, the Kiev-Warsaw railroad is covered for a long distance by the Vistula River. Ivangorod, at the great bend of the Vistula, was strongly fortified. A hundred miles southeast of Ivangorod begin the great Pinsk marshes, which offer a serious military obstacle, and the roads into this district are covered by the fortresses of Lusk, Rowno, and Dubno. But in this gap between the Vistula and the swamps there is no fortified post. Lublin and Cholm, the stations on the Kiev railroad in this district, are open towns. This Lublin gap, then, is the weak joint in the Russian armor.

Now behind this first line of fortifications, covering the Warsaw triangle, the Russians have been recently constructing a second line. This runs due south from Kovno on the Niemen, behind the Niemen to Grodno, then south through Brest-Litowsk to the Pinsk marshes at Kovel. This new line is the base of the Warsaw triangle. In making this second line the Russians paid most attention to Brest-Litowsk, which is due east of Warsaw and at the point of intersection of the Moscow-Warsaw railroad, and the line from the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad at Bielo-stock to the Kiev-Warsaw line at Kovel.

In making her plans a few years ago Russia announced that her mobilization would take place on the Brest-Litowsk line, instead



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THE BIG PERSONALITIES IN THE GREAT STRUGGLE ON THE EASTERN FRONT

TOP PICTURE: The German Emperor (center); beside him, to the right, General von Seeckt, Chief of the General Staff of Mackensen's army; the tall figure on the right is General Mackensen. CENTER ROW: General von Bulow; Grand Duke Nicholas, Commander of the Russian armies; Field-Marshal von Hindenburg. BOTTOM PICTURE: Prince Leopold, of Bavaria, who entered Warsaw at the head of the German forces, with his staff on the Eastern front (the Prince is facing this way, and has a beard).

of about Warsaw. This roused French protest and the plans were subsequently modified. But it is worth recalling that Russia years ago recognized that the Polish salient¹ was a dangerous thing to defend and had already contemplated abandoning it in the opening days of the conflict.

With these few geographical facts in mind it is now possible to indicate the situation. If the Polish salient were attacked at the same time by armies coming north out of Galicia and striking at the Lublin gap and south out of East Prussia aiming at the fortresses opposite the Lublin gap on the Narew River, notably Ostrolenka, Ossowetz, and Lomza, then the line of retreat of all the Russian armies to the east would be threatened, and if the attack were completely successful might be cut off, as by a pair of pincers.

On the other hand an isolated attack from the north or from the south would carry no deadly peril, because, even if the northern or southern rail lines were cut, there was room and there were railroads available for retreat from Warsaw, if the invader could not be checked. We shall see presently how the single thrusts failed and how the first combined north and south thrust broke in the whole Polish salient and compelled the withdrawal to the second line of defense, which is the Brest-Litowsk line.

III. FIRST EFFORTS

Very early in the progress of the war, while the attention of the world was fixed upon the western field, Berlin and Vienna bulletins began to chronicle successful operations in the district just south of Lublin. An Austrian success at Krasnik in the last week of August, 1914, was made much of in Berlin, but promptly thereafter forgotten. Now what actually happened was that an Austrian army had been mobilized quickly and thrust north at the Lublin gap. Its mission was to break in the south side of the Polish salient, cut the Warsaw-Kiev railroad at Lublin and advance against the Warsaw-Moscow line at Siedlce, west of Brest-Litowsk.

This ambitious strategical venture collapsed, when the Russians, sending their masses into Galicia east of Lemberg, routed the Austrian armies about the Galician capital and began to flow west toward the San. This put them in the rear of the Austrian armies at or near Lublin and these forces

escaped only by a retreat which ended in something approaching a panic-stricken flight. This was the first try of the Central Powers at the Polish salient.

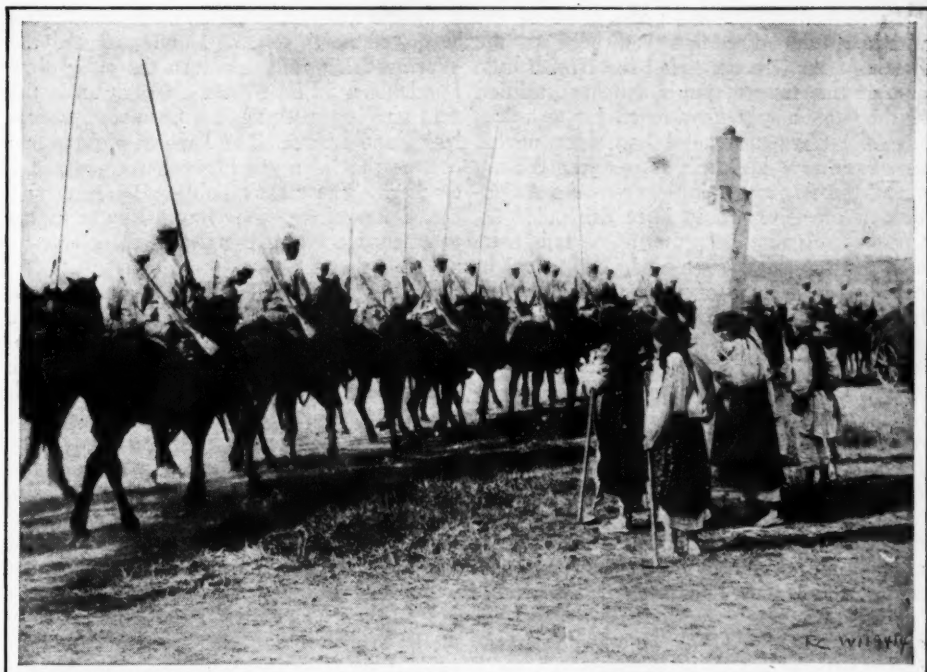
Russian strategy now disclosed a vastly ambitious purpose. It set out to abolish the Polish salient by a double invasion. East Prussia and Galicia were both to be taken at the same moment and the Russian military front carried to the Vistula, from the Thorn to Dantzig, and to the Carpathians from Cracow to Rumania. Could this plan be carried out Russia would then have to maintain only a straight line from the mouth of the Vistula to the Rumanian frontier. All danger incident to the Polish salient would be abolished.

But the Prussian victory of Tannenberg destroyed one half of this scheme. East Prussia was not occupied. The upper of the two millstones remained poised above Poland. On the other hand the Galician operation was uniformly successful, and by April Russia had carried her military front west from the Polish frontier to the Carpathians. There was now no Polish salient. Rather there was an East Prussian salient, between Poland and the Baltic. Again and again Russia had attempted to crush in this salient, but the defeat of the Mazurian Lakes had confirmed the decision of Tannenberg and put an end to these efforts.

On the other hand the same period had seen successive failures of the Germans to operate against the apex and the northern side of the Polish salient. The bloody struggle about Lodz, in November, had merely carried the Germans to the Bzura line, where the real military front of the Russians began. Time and again Mackensen and Hindenburg had attempted to break through the Kovno-Novo Georgievsk barrier, but every effort had failed.

By March it was plain to the world, as it probably had been much earlier to the German high command, that the invasion of Poland could only succeed when it was made through Galicia, that the Lublin gap was the one vulnerable point in the Polish salient and this was to be reached only through Galicia and after Lemberg had been retaken. At the same time there was equally patent the hopelessness of any Russian effort to beat down the East Prussian salient. Russia had therefore transferred her masses to the Carpathians and in April was striving to break through the mountains into Hungary, having at last captured Przemyśl and its great garrison.

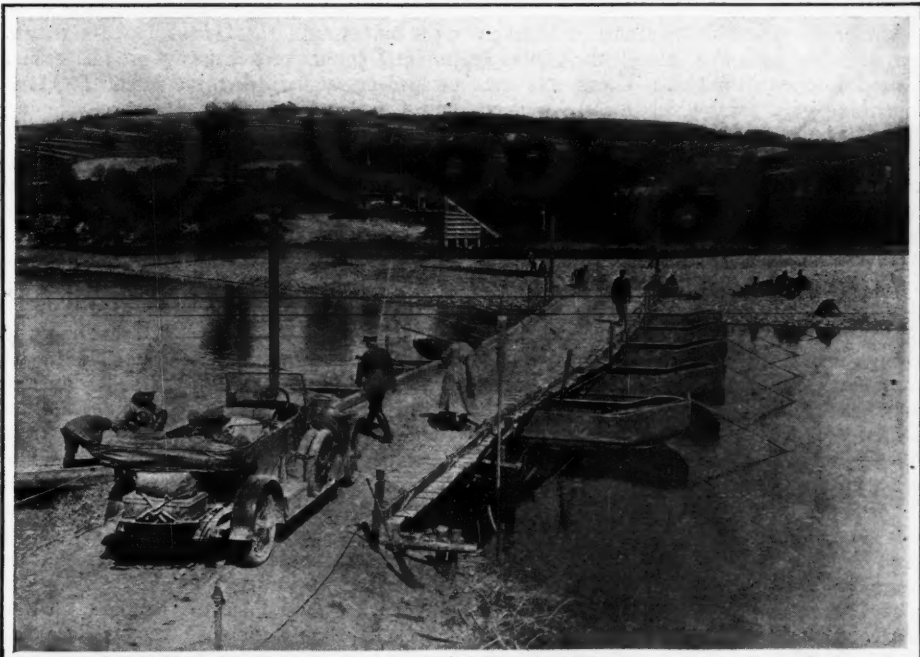
¹As a military term, the noun "salient" signifies simply a projecting angle.



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THE GREAT RUSSIAN RETREAT

In this picture, received in the United States late in August, can be seen a Russian column in orderly retreat from Galicia, while the peasants, in their picturesque costumes, stand by as interested observers.



Photograph by Paul Thompson.

ON THE TRAIL OF THE RUSSIAN ARMIES

A German pontoon bridge thrown across a Russian stream, during the pursuit of the Grand Duke's forces.

In March the second great crisis of the war arrived. The first had been in the Battle of the Marne. Had the British been able at this time to put Kitchener's million in the field, amply munitioned for an offensive, the Germans would have been unable to concentrate all their troops just coming out of training-camps in the east. An Anglo-French offensive would have demanded attention. Again, had the ill-starred Dardanelles campaign succeeded, Russia might have received some of the ammunition, the lack of which was to cost her dearly in the next few weeks.

But the Allied chance was lost, mainly, if not wholly by British unreadiness. A preliminary attack by the Germans about Ypres disclosed the British weakness, a number of French attacks were beaten down from Alsace to Artois. Germany was free to make her great bid for a decision against Russia. She was bound to make it in Galicia, because of the impregnability of the northern defenses of Poland. Thus about May 1, there breaks out that tremendous engagement along the Dunajec-Biala line which is the prelude to the march to Warsaw.

IV. FROM THE DUNAJEC TO THE VISTULA

Under the storm of the attack of Mackensen the Russian line along the Dunajec melted into rapid flight. There was here something of a rout which for the moment imperilled the whole Russian mass along the Carpathians. For a week the world watched to see if the Grand Duke would succeed in extricating his Carpathian armies from between the pincers, which were supplied by Mackensen's army moving eastward through Galicia and the Austrian troops coming north through the passes.

The Russian commander succeeded, although his losses were tremendous. Then came the second problem: Could the advance be arrested along the San and the Dniester? If the Russians could hold the line from Ivangorod on the Vistula to Przemyśl, then the Lublin gap was still closed. But the Russian ammunition again failed. Przemyśl was retaken, then Lemberg. Galicia had been reconquered. A thin line of Russians hung on east of Lemberg, but the beaten masses were going north into the Lublin gap, followed by Mackensen.

In a word the Polish salient was now restored. The conditions of the opening days of the war were reproduced. The time

had come when an Austrian army could again be driven north toward Lublin, toward the Warsaw-Kiev railroad. At the same time Hindenburg in East Prussia was again in the field striking south against Ossowetz, Ostrolenka, and Lomza. The Russian position had become that of a nut between the jaws of a cracker. The masses holding Warsaw and the lines along the Bzura-Rawka were threatened a hundred miles in their rear by a double thrust.

Two separate phases are to be noted in what followed and they are marked by the successive speculations of all military observers, first as to whether the Grand Duke could now hold on at Warsaw; second, whether he could bring his armies safely out of the net that was spread for him. The answer to the first speculation came, as it was bound to come, from the south. If the armies which had been driven out of Galicia could be rallied and were able to stand south of the Warsaw-Kiev railroad, the Polish salient was safe. But they failed. Desperate fighting, and a clear defeat for the Austrian wing of the armies coming north, were of no permanent avail.

Before the German and Austrian armies touched the Kiev line at Lublin, thus penetrating the gap, the world knew that the Polish salient was lost. Then came the great question. Could the Grand Duke extricate himself, could he get away as Joffre had escaped in August, when the defeats at Mons and Charleroi seemed to insure enveloping disaster? Would he fail as Lee had failed from Richmond to Appomattox? If he failed, the main Russian military force might be enveloped completely, but what was more likely was that it would lose its artillery and its organization, and be driven east into the swamps as a disorganized mass.

All now depended upon two things: (1) The ability of the troops still holding the northern side of the triangle to hold on against Hindenburg, (2) the ability of the troops on the south, now coming north from Lublin and Cholm, to retard Mackensen until the masses from Warsaw were safely east of the closing pincers. There began now from Kovno to Novo Georgievsk the most intense fighting of the whole campaign, while the struggle about Lublin was hardly less terrific.

Yet when these lines are written, after the middle of August, there is every evidence that the Russian escape has been completed and that the armies of Hindenburg and Mackensen have been held back, as one would hold

back the jaws of a dog. The evacuation of Warsaw was completed with no sign of haste, German bulletins disclosed none of the huge captures which were so frequent in Galicia and in the other successful operations. Kovno and Ossowetz long held out and Kovno was only taken on August 17. Lomza, Ostrolenka, and Rozan have been occupied, but only after time sufficient to enable the troops to the south to escape. Novo Georgievsk has been invested and cut off; but apparently its garrison has been sacrificed as Joffre sacrificed that of Maubeuge and for a similar reason. The Russian fortress commands the Vistula as Maubeuge commands the Paris-Liège railway, the main line of German transport. North of Lublin and Cholm, Mackensen has made almost no progress. By the time this magazine is published the fact will unquestionably be established; but as it stands to-day, Russian success in escaping destruction seems unmistakable.

V. IN COURLAND

But while the Warsaw operation was still going forward, a new German offensive in Courland claimed attention. The combined naval and land operation against Libau had appeared at first rather as an effort to divert Russian forces and expand the field of Russian apprehension than as a serious attempt, having a close relation to the campaign to the south.

The extension of this operation in the latter days of July and the first fortnight of August, however, began to suggest that it was in fact, either a part of the whole eastern operation and designed as a very wide turning movement, or else the beginning of a new drive, aimed at Petrograd. The forces under Bülow, who commanded here, were sufficient to sweep back the local troops. In the second week in August an attack upon Riga by the German fleet was noted, while the German armies occupied Mitau and the civilian population fled east. But the fleet was repulsed and a Russian counter-offensive regained Mitau.

Meantime the military observers saw in the movement a possible effort to swing by the north around the Russian right, above Kovno and Vilna, cut the Petrograd-Warsaw railroad far north of the Brest-Litowsk line, interpose between the main Russian forces and the capital, and compel them to continue their retreat beyond their second line.

Coincident with this development the main

German offensive seemed to be shifting to the north, and there was plain suggestion that Hindenburg gave his chief attention to the reduction of the fortress of Kovno, the northernmost post in the Brest-Litowsk line. With the capture of Kovno the Germans are able to move east and beyond the flank of the Russians to the south and there is beginning to develop another salient, with even greater peril to the Russians than the abandoned Polish salient, since it is protected on the north by no line of forts such as had long maintained the Polish salient intact. The fall of Kovno also opens a gap between the Russian armies in Courland and in Poland. A thrust at the Petrograd-Brelostok railroad at Vilna becomes probable. It is the first serious consequence of Russian retreat and the first considerable German success since the Polish capital was occupied.

As to the possibility of an advance upon Petrograd along the shores of the Baltic and the Gulf of Finland, this seemed contingent upon the success of the Warsaw operation still uncompleted and the situation in the west and in the Balkans. The threat of such a blow might serve as one more warning to Russia to give over the struggle, the similar threat this operation constituted to the main Russian armies on the Brest-Litowsk line might necessitate a further retreat, compelling the Russians to go behind the lines of the Pripet swamp and thus to disappear as a serious factor for many months to come. In the present situation the latter seems the more reasonable explanation.

In sum, it is reasonable to suppose that German strategy had in mind two objects. The first and far more grandiose was the disposing of Russia. On getting a decision in the east, Germany had risked a larger part of all the reserves that it is conceivable there remained to her. She had resigned the offensive in the west, giving Great Britain at least four months to bring on her armies and develop her munitions factories. A similar respite had been granted to the French. The risk that these western foes might be able to take the offensive successfully, Germany seems to have discounted safely.

But if the decision escaped her, then Germany could at the least occupy lines as advantageous to her as were those that she took after the Marne. The line of the Niemen, the Vistula, and the Dniester could be held with far fewer men than the old front; the menace to Austria would be abolished; the battle would be fought on Russian territory; the Poles might be enlisted in the armies of

the Central Powers. Such results would be far from the decision hoped for and sought, but would show real profit,—a profit calculated to satisfy German public opinion and give Germany still more hostages for the negotiations for peace that might come.

Yet to occupy Poland at the cost of half a million casualties,—added to an equally large number in Galicia and doubled by the Austrian casualties in the same campaigns,—and not eliminate Russia, might prove in the end a German defeat. This, unless Russia could be persuaded to make peace while her armies, although undestroyed, were heavily beaten and a large sweep of her territories occupied. Inescapably, the conclusion forces itself upon the observer that the chief purpose of the eastern campaign was to get peace with Russia, by the destruction of the Russian army, by the conquest of Russian territory,—by either or by both. If this should fail (and a few weeks must decide this), Warsaw might prove another Antwerp,—a brilliant military feat, barren of any but local consequences.

VI. RUSSIAN STRATEGY

It remains now to glance at Russian strategy in the recent critical operations. We have seen that Russia's first effort was to beat down both the East Prussian and the Galician menaces to Poland. This was given over, after the defeat of the Mazurian Lakes; and Russia endeavored, while containing the German troops from the Pilitza to the Niemen, to dispose of Austria, to break into Hungary and to force the Hapsburg Monarchy to a separate peace in order to escape destruction.

The disaster along the Dunajec put an end to all Russian offensive strategy. For the time the sole possibility was to rescue imperilled armies. Russian ammunition had failed. There was no prospect for the present of renewing it. As in Manchuria, so in Galicia, after disaster Russian military genius shone forth in a brilliant retreat. The retreat from Galicia began as something approximating a rout. It ended in an orderly withdrawal.

The decision to retreat from Poland seems to have been determined by the pressure of Mackensen on the south, but there is at least some ground for believing that it was determined in Galicia and that the Grand Duke recognized then that long retreats were inevitable. At all events after the first defeat in Galicia Russian strategy is no longer

to be mistaken. Russia has adopted precisely the same policy by which she ultimately ruined Napoleon.

Thus the German official reports relate that as the Russians retire they are burning the crops, laying waste the country, turning provinces into deserts, driving the population before them. This is 1812 over again. But what is of most interest is to recognize that the Russians have clung to the main idea that it is essential to keep their armies in being. They have declined to risk their armies in a dangerous defensive. They have followed the famous strategy of their ancestors. They have copied the method of Joffre last year, when he gave the Germans northern France to save the French armies. They expect to regain their lost provinces, when they obtain ammunition and restore their broken organizations.

In all this there is unmistakable the Russian conviction that the Germans can be beaten only by attrition; that the war is to be long and the decision to come only after the enemy has been exhausted. To fight to the last moment of safety, to retreat and to fight again, to exact the last possible casualty, but to keep their armies intact, to go back more miles if necessary, but never to let Germany get the supreme profit out of her present material and human superiority,—this is the sum of Russian strategy as disclosed in recent months. And it is the kind of strategy that defeated Napoleon.

More and more, too, the war is assuming a Napoleonic character. The coming of Italy recalled to the whole world the circumstances of 1813. Thereafter Napoleon's real hope lay in making peace; and history records his many vain efforts to divide his enemies in the closing months of his empire. Now Germany has sought by victory to eliminate first France and then Russia. She failed in France, has she failed in Russia? Certainly nothing in the Russian situation suggests yet that Russia has been eliminated or is ready to give over the struggle. Maximilien Harden has warned his countrymen against such a delusion in one of his last published comments. Religious, dynastic, racial influences all point the other way for him.

Yet well-informed German opinion has expected a termination of the war this fall: a quick drive at the west after a complete triumph in the east. Is this possible? The answer must be found in the facts about the Warsaw drive not yet established. But there still remains the problem whether the Germans, even though Russia is practically put



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RUSSIAN ARTILLERY RETREATING BEFORE THE GERMANS

(The success of the Russians in saving their heavy artillery was one of the marvels of the campaign)

out for some months, can bring sufficient troops west to obtain a decisive advantage in numbers over the French and English.

Russian strategy, French strategy, Allied strategy, as a whole, has each come down to a single purpose. Peace is a thing far off, to be had when Germany has been bled white. Provinces and cities are details, casualty lists are all important. Victory can be had only when 8,000,000 Germans have been put out of the game by death, disability, or capture. So in our war the North defeated the South; Europe defeated Napoleon; Rome overcame Hannibal. This is the view of Petrograd, Paris, London, Rome. It explains, for the Allies, Russian retreats. It may be right or wrong, but it is the foundation of all Allied policy and faith.

VII. THE BALKANS

Russian defeat exercised a curious and unforeseen influence upon the various Balkan states. The world was surprised when Rumania failed to follow the example of Italy, and lost the best chance imaginable for laying hands upon Bukovina and Transylvania. Had Rumania entered the war in May, the

Warsaw campaign would have been impossible.

But,—Warsaw fallen,—there was prompt stirring in the Balkans. The reason was plain. While Russia was successful, but still not able to get a complete decision over Austria, Rumania, Greece, and Bulgaria could afford to wait. If Austria were crushed, their ambitions might be realized, for it was Austria and not Russia which sought to retain Rumanian populations in Transylvania and Bukovina and to come south to the Egean. Austria out of the way, the prizes might be had for the taking.

But a victorious Austria was a different question. To Rumania it meant the end of the long-cherished *risorgimento*. To Greece it meant the loss of Salonica and southern Macedonia. To Bulgaria it meant that Turkey would be restored to strength and Bulgaria be caught between two German allies, while Austrian advance down the Vardar valley would close the dream of a restored Macedonia.

Accordingly Rumania speedily gave evidence of her sentiments by closing her frontiers to German ammunition sent to Turkey. An unfriendly act in the eyes of the Ger-

mans, this decision was accepted as a final evidence of Rumanian leanings.

Next the Bulgarian Premier gave the world a frank statement of the price which Bulgaria demands for her participation in the war, but pledged that twenty-four hours after payment Bulgarian armies would be on their way to Adrianople and Chatalja. The price was high. All of Serbian Macedonia, Greek Macedonia east of the Struma, including Kavala, Seres, and Drama, the Rumanian stealings about Silistria. In a word the Treaty of Bucharest is to be torn up.

To these terms Allied diplomats implored Greek, Serb, and Rumanian to yield. Meantime German troops were gathering on the Danube, German newspapers were proclaiming the approach of a new offensive, an attempt to "hack a way" through Serbia and open the road for ammunition to Turkey. Plainly the Balkan crisis had come. The decision cannot be long delayed, for a successful German offensive will terminate the freedom of Serbia; make Bulgaria a mere pawn in the hands of the diplomacy which rules in Constantinople, Vienna, and Berlin, and which plans to eliminate Serbia. Rumania will have to put away all dreams of Balkan supremacy, and may have to pay dearly for contumacy in the matter of ammunition. As for Greece, she has refused Kavala to the Bulgars. Can she keep Salonica from the Austro-German?

The return of Venizelos to power, the meeting of the Serb and Greek Parliaments, the new Allied efforts at Gallipoli, these are circumstances of the immediate present when these lines are written. But on the surface the ancient hatreds seem to leave the Balkan states immobilized in the face of a new and common peril. Greece and Serbia cling to their Macedonian spoils. The entrance of the Balkan states, the restoration of the old Balkan alliance, would seal the fate of Turkey and add new perils to Austria. But the success of Austrian diplomacy, two years ago in dividing the conquerors of the Turk seems to remain a permanent advantage to Vienna.

If Germany can keep the Balkan states neutral she will have won a diplomatic victory counterbalancing that won by the Allies at Rome. But defeat here will be more expensive than that in the Italian capital. For, the fall of Constantinople is an event far more important to the issue of the war than the capture of Warsaw without the Russian army. One of the most dramatic circumstances in the whole struggle is now supplied by the Balkan crisis. The solution may

not settle the war, but if the Allies are defeated it will materially lengthen it, and may save the Turk for many months or even years.

Rarely in human history has there been a more striking contrast than that supplied by the fortunes of Bulgaria two years ago and to-day. Then, she was beaten and forsaken, a pariah among the Balkan pariahs. To-day Bulgarian decision is awaited in every capital of Europe with the intensest concern, and the rulers of all the Great Powers are bidding against each other for Bulgarian favors. Even "Czar" Ferdinand's chagrin at missing that triumphal entrance into Byzantium and the world-filling ceremony at Saint Sophia must be partially forgotten to-day, when no king is too great to do him homage.

VIII. AT THE DARDANELLES

In that brilliant first report of Sir Ian Hamilton, which still furnishes most of all that the world knows about the Dardanelles campaign, the Allied commander supplied an admirable figure for illustrating the Gallipoli peninsula. The portion which has so far seen fighting he compared to a well-worn boot, poised above the Dardanelles.

Accepting this figure it is easy to explain the whole progress of events. In the last days of April the main Allied force was flung ashore at the extreme end of the Gallipoli peninsula, the toe of the boot. Its objective were the forts commanding the narrowest point in the Dardanelles, which are under the heel and about the village of Kilid Bahr.

From the toe, which is little over a mile wide, between Cape Hellas and the village and forts of Sedul Bahr, along the sole of the boot to Kilid Bahr is less than ten miles. This is the extreme limit of advance necessary to clear the road to Constantinople, for above Kilid Bahr the Dardanelles widen and are not heavily fortified.

The landing operation was difficult in the extreme because the earlier naval demonstration had warned the Turks and they had heavily fortified the foreshore. It was accomplished under heavy fire with a loss to the British alone of over 15,000, a casualty list exceeding the number of the whole of Shafter's first expedition to Santiago in 1898.

Once landed, the mission of the Allied forces was to push rapidly up the boot from the toe to the heel. But less than four miles from the toe the advance was halted by the first line of defenses of the Turks, that is, the first field works and heavy entrench-



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ENGLISH NAVAL GUNS BEING LANDED AT CAPE HELLES, THEY ARE COVERED WITH SOLDIERS' COATS TO HIDE THEM FROM THE AERIAL EYES OF THE ENEMY



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TURKISH PRISONERS ENCAMPED WITHIN A BARBWIRE INCLOSURE AT SEDDIL BAHR
TWO SCENES FROM THE FIGHTING ZONE OF THE DARDANELLES

ments. This is the Achi Baba position which takes its name from the hill rising in the center of the peninsula to a height of 700 feet. This hill is merely the crest of a ridge extending straight across the boot from shore to shore and rising sharply out of the sea on one side and the straits on the other to an elevation of above 400 feet.

On the first day after the landing had been completed the whole of the main force was stopped short before Achi Baba, west of the little town of Krithia. At this point the British ammunition failed in the first rush, after that it became a question of siege work exactly like that in France and Flanders and save for incidental trenches the Allies have gained nothing since.

Meantime, to the northeast, at the point that answers to the ankle of the Gallipoli foot, the Australian and New Zealand contingents were flung ashore between the hill of Gaba Tepe and the Cape of Suvla. Their mission it was to move south, behind the Turkish line of Achi Baba and force the Turks to evacuate it. But this advance was checked even more promptly than the first. Here the hill of Sari Bahr, rising from the beach to a height of 900 feet, proved an impassable barrier. The best the Australians could do was to hold on for many days.

Latterly, in the third week of August, reinforcements were landed at this point and there was some slight progress, but as yet not enough to endanger the Turks at Achi Baba. It would be difficult to exaggerate the heroism shown by the Allied troops as a whole and by the Australian and New Zealand colonials in particular in the landing. The losses were simply terrific and the obstacles well-nigh insurmountable.

But it is now necessary to emphasize the fact that if the troops landed at the ankle about Suvla were able to capture Sari Bahr and push on, they would then encounter the second and stronger Turkish position, that which takes its name from the hill of Pasha Dag. This position stretches in a wide semi-circle from the Straits above to the same channel below Kilid Bahr. Pasha Dag itself is over 900 feet in height and the hills that surround it make a thoroughly defensible line, the face toward the enemy broken by deep ravines.

A successful advance by the troops before the Achi Baba line, or by those now before Sari Bahr, would compel the Turks to draw back to the Pasha Dag position, but this is stronger than the other positions and constitutes the main defensive line of the Turks.

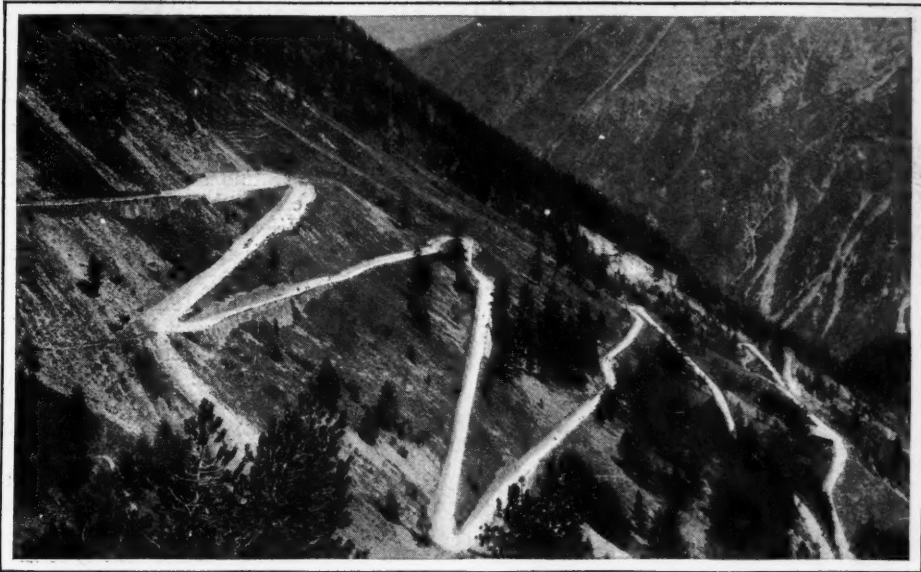
If it should be taken, then the way to Constantinople is open, for the Pasha Dag ridge dominates the forts at Kilid Bahr and those on the lower-lying Asiatic shore as well. But as yet the Allies have not even driven the Turk into his last and strongest position and in four months have only advanced four of the ten miles that they must cover to win.

Since the front that the Turks have to defend does not exceed six miles,—the Achi Baba front is less than three,—there is only one apparent hope for Allied success. If the Turkish ammunition fails, then victory will be easy. But otherwise the Turk seems to have found another Plevna and can hold on indefinitely.

The failure of ammunition may be due to exhaustion or to the interruption of supply by the cutting of the lines of communication. The Allied submarines have already made water transport hazardous, but the main reason why the intervention of Bulgaria is so eagerly desired is that a Bulgarian army, following the route of the victors of Lule Burgas in 1912, would come down to the Sea of Marmora at Rodosto and thus sever the land line of communications between Constantinople and Gallipoli. A Greek or Italian expedition landed at Enos, north of the Gulf of Saros, and sent east would accomplish the same thing. Hence the effort to enlist Greece.

But as yet there is no promise of Allied success in the Gallipoli peninsula outside of that flowing from the rumors that Turkish ammunition is failing. Military men the world over, Colonel Maude among the well-known British commentators, some of the best-known general officers in the American army, continue to criticize the failure of the Allied fleet to force the Straits in the earlier venture. The example of Farragut in Mobile Bay, they hold, should have been followed and would have proved far less costly in the end.

In sum, we have a deadlock at the Dardanelles, wholly comparable to that in the west, with Allied chances of early victory mainly dependent upon the intervention of Balkan States or the failure of Turkish ammunition. As for the Turks, their work consists in holding on until the Germans can open a way for munitions through the Balkans, either by gold, threats, or actual military operations. Thus far they have been able to perform their part with utmost success and have earned the praise of their enemies alike for their courage and the humanity displayed by them toward their wounded captives.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

STELVIO PASS

(Showing the zig-zag road leading up the side of the mountain)

THE LANDS THAT ITALY WANTS

BY ELBERT FRANCIS BALDWIN

[Of all the zones of war, perhaps the most picturesque country is that included in the Italian "irredenta," the territory which Italy hopes to free from Austrian rule. Mr. Elbert F. Baldwin, the author of the following article, has traveled much in those regions, and writes from an intimate knowledge of every foot of the way.—THE EDITOR.]

THE lands that Italy wants are, first, mountains, Italy is at her mercy. This has already been proved in the present war. A machine gun can guard a whole pass. But if Italy conquers the Trentino she would find the mountain masses along the northern border of that province practically an east-and-west wall.

THE TRENTINO

Look at a map of Italy. You will note that the Trentino forms a wedge, as if it were driven through the northern border, the "Trentino Salient," as military men call it. This wedge is of distinct strategic value to Austria. Hence, to the reason of language is added another,—the military reason,—to make Italy want it. The wedge is mountainous and therefore strategically is doubly valuable. With Austria commanding these

The one element of danger in the Trentino, then, would be the valley of the Adige, which forms a north-to-south opening. Hence some Italian jingoes, desiring even a still more ideally strategic frontier, have even dared to covet,—further to the north,—a wholly German-speaking region, as great in extent as is the Trentino, so that the Italian northern boundary might rest on the summits of the Alpine main ridge.

As may be surmised from the mountainous character of the Trentino, most of the people are engaged in pastoral pursuits. Agriculture, nevertheless, holds an important



Photograph by Medem

STATUE OF DANTE AT TRENT

place. There are also certain industries, notably silk-spinning.

Milan is an appropriate starting place for a journey through the lands for the possession of which Italy is now fighting Austria. For it was at Milan that the first of the five wars between Italy and Austria broke out. Milan was then Austrian, the capital of the kingdom of Lombardy and Venetia, subject to Hapsburg rule. As in many other cities throughout Europe in that great year of revolution, 1848, so in Milan there was rebellion. It had far-reaching waves, arousing even Naples and Sicily against the Bourbons, and especially causing the peoples of central Italy to rise against their rulers. The source of all this activity came from Piedmont, and Charles Albert, the Piedmontese king, put himself at the head of a movement which, having as its first main object deliverance from the Austrian yoke later became irresistibly a movement to unite Italy. The short war of 1848 was succeeded by the brief struggle of 1849, and that, ten years later, by the still greater war which liberated Lombardy. In 1866 occurred the war which liberated Venetia, and the present conflict may result in the liberation of the Trentino.

THE TONALE PASS

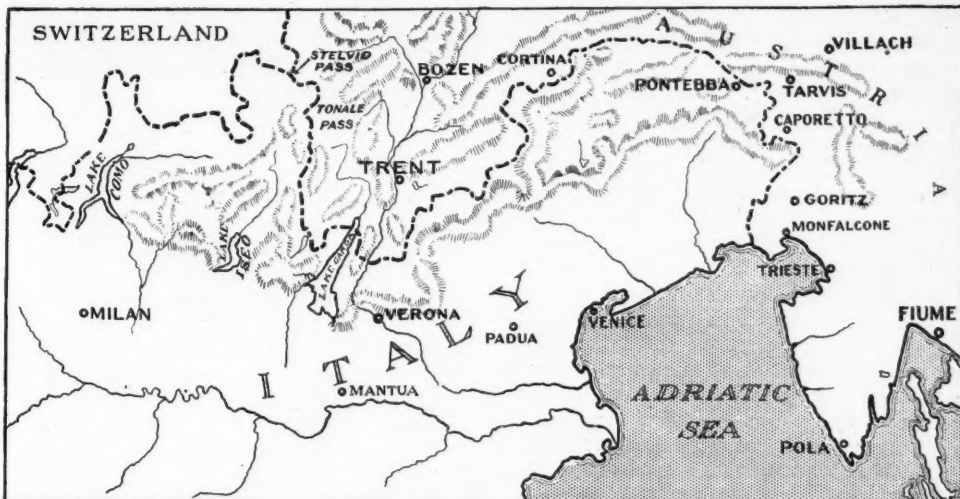
To get an adequate idea of its sublime scenery and of its strategic importance, the traveler in Milan who would journey through the Trentino should not approach it by railway eastward to Verona and then northward. His way lies rather over the Tonale Pass. This important pass has had a reputation for sharp conflicts,—witness 1799, 1808, 1848, and 1866,—and now it has again become prominent by reason of the first fight in the war between Italy and Austria. It took place at Forcellina di Montozzo, a few miles to the north and above the summit of the pass, which marks the international boundary.

I have repeatedly taken two routes to reach the pass from Milan. One is by Iseo and the Val Camonica to Edolo. Another way is from Milan to Como, then by steamer up the lake to Colico, by train to Tresenda, and then over the Aprica Pass to Edolo. From Edolo we journey up to the Tonale Pass, which marks the international frontier. The ice-masses of the Ortler group separate the Tonale from the Stelvio; on the other side of the Tonale are the Adamello ice-masses.

Now down the Val Vermiglio, for though we are in Austria after leaving the top of the pass, the Italian language pursues us. Some thirty miles east and south brings us to Madonna di Campiglio, a notable center for excursions among the glaciers of the Adamello Alps, a great mountain fastness in which a small body of troopers could hold out for a long time against larger numbers. Another stretch of some thirty miles east and north, going as far south as Sarche, only a few miles from Arco, with its castle on a dizzy height, just this side of Lake Garda.

FORTIFIED MOUNTAIN FASTNESSES

Much of the country between Lake Garda and the Adige Valley is of extraordinarily interesting character from a military standpoint. It has been of immense help to the Austrians, defended as they are by this great natural fortress which they have honey-combed with tunnels driven through solid rock by means of dynamite and pneumatic drills. The popping of pneumatic drills, in fact, has been reported to be as frequent as that of machine guns during the past few weeks. The Austrians have also mined the overhanging crags, connecting them by wires with rock-hewn branches and tunnels, so that whenever they choose they may loosen



MAP OF THE AUSTRIAN POSSESSIONS COVETED BY ITALY

some huge boulder and send it crashing down to wipe out a detachment of Italians. The stone walls along the outer sides of the mountain roads have been removed in order to give the batteries on the opposite mountain side such a sweep of the road as to make it impossible for the Italians to use them for shelter.

THE CITY OF TRENT

And so we come to Trent, the capital of the Trentino. The name Trent suggests something old. Students think of the Roman Tridendum; they will, also, think of that long church council which took place here from 1545 to 1564, a council of importance in the development of Roman Catholic theology. But just now we do not care so much about the religious prestige of Trent as we do about its political changes. Think how it was controlled in turn by Rhaetian, Roman, Goth, Hun, Ostrogoth, Lombard, Carolingian and the Holy Roman Empire,—which was neither holy nor Roman! In 1027 the Emperor Conrad II granted all temporal powers in the province of the Trentino to the Prince-Bishops of Trent. They governed it until 1813. Then it was annexed by Austria. The year 1915 may mark its annexation by Italy.

The City of Trent, as we look upon it, seems a very modern, solid, attractive community of, say, thirty thousand inhabitants. Modern are its principal hotels, the Imperial and Bristol; modern its street life, accentuated by the military, and modern, too, its industries. But this once noted, one quickly

gets back into other ages. There is the Castello di Buon Consiglio, the residence of the old Prince-Bishops. There is the cathedral, a capital example of Lombard architecture. There is the church of Santa Maria Maggiore, with its red marble campanile; the Council was held in this church. There are those fine old palaces, the Podetti, Zampelli and Tabarelli. There are the old towers,—the Torre Verde, with its roof of green and yellow glazed tiles, and the square Torre Vanzo. There is the library, rich in old manuscripts. Finally, standing out in bold relief against the mountain background, there is the fine statue of Dante, reminding us that the great poet knew the Trentino well, as one may note from passages in his "Divine Comedy."

Within sight of Trent to the southeast stands Monte Zugna, fortified by the Austrians and surrounded by wire entanglements and three lines of trenches. The position comprised also two large barracks, reported to have cost \$800,000, and which possessed the most modern equipment. According to the Italian account, an Italian reconnaissance platoon, seeing that the fortifications were undermanned, deployed in several detachments, pretending to be a battalion instead of a contingent of less than 100 men. The Austrian garrison surrendered, and the mountain is said to have been occupied without a single Italian casualty.

THE VALLEY OF THE ADIGE

It is interesting to journey southward down the Adige to those places acquired by

Austria in 1517 from Venice to Rovereto (fifteen miles south of Trent and the southernmost Austrian fortress of importance in the Adige Valley). We pass the historic castle of Lizzana below Rovereto; Dante went to live in this castle after he was banished from Florence. Then we pass three or four miles between the entrenchments on both sides of the river to Mori, and then some six miles through a defile described by Dante, to Ala on the Italian frontier. Italian troops could advance through this defile only by capturing practically every mountain or height, for everything had seemingly become an actual Austrian fortress. Near the frontier, where the Italians occupied one side of a valley and the Austrians the other, the opposing forces have dynamited great shelves in the rock near the summits and there planted their howitzers.

HURLING SHELLS OVER MOUNTAIN TOPS

In this connection, it is interesting to note that while cannon of flat trajectory are in use against all objects in direct lines of fire, in this broken mountain fighting cannon of distinctly curved trajectory must be employed, in order to reach the deep trenches hidden behind the elevations. In trying to overcome Austria's apparently impregnable advantage in the possession of the high mountains, a great deal of wonderfully effective work has been done by the Italians from below in dropping shells on the enemy's batteries or in shooting over mountain peaks 5000 feet high and dropping shells on the enemy's forces on the other side. It is this kind of fighting, indeed, which distinguishes the Italians. Their army, indeed, lacks, first, the immense masses of men in the Russian and Austro-German armies, for instance, and, second, the huge volume of metal which especially distinguishes the German artillery. On the other hand, the Italian army is distinguished by a singularly adroit adaptation to the mountain warfare now upon them. Their lightly equipped *Bersaglieri* and *Alpini* have apparently more of the elasticity and yet toughness of leather than have any corps in any army.

One should also take an eastward journey to the Lake of Caldonazzo, Levico, and especially to the Val Sugana, a strategic region won by the Italians against a brave foe some six weeks after the war began.

But, in particular, one should journey through the northern part of the Trentino, proceeding twenty miles up the Adige and then veering eastward over the splendid Aus-

trian road. Near Vigo di Fassa, what are to me the most striking examples of the Dolomites,—the Rosengarten group,—come into view, clear-cut against the sky.

THE AMPEZZO VALLEY AGAIN ITALIAN

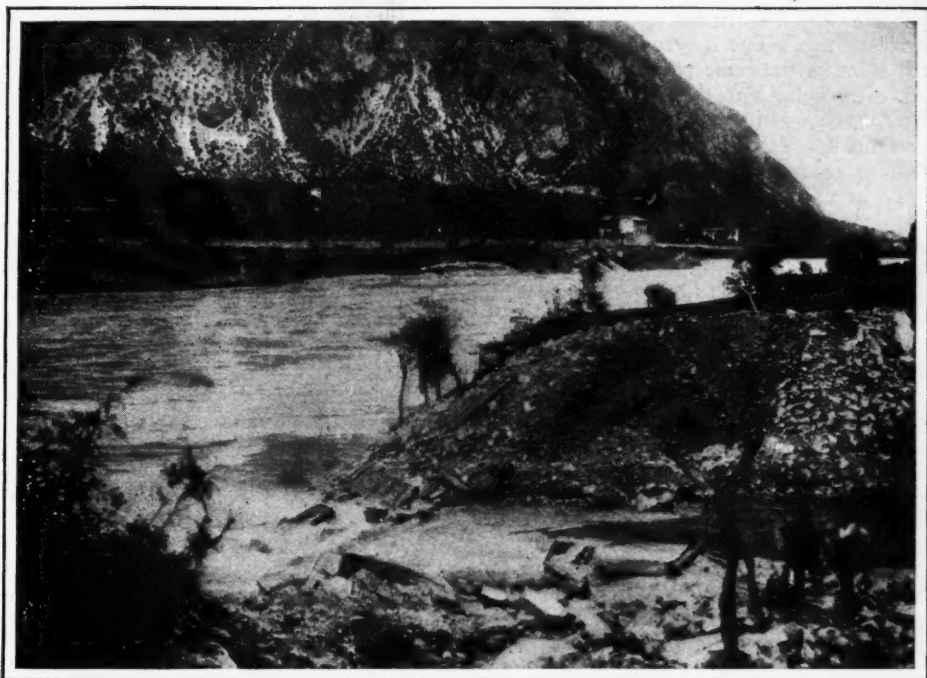
Then over two passes, one of which the Italians have now taken, and we reach the Ampezzo Valley and Cortina. Four centuries ago the valley was Italian and was known as the "Magnifica Comunità Ampezzo." You may still read this title on the coats of arms there. Yet it has remained essentially Italian, as one may gather from its name and from the names of the Cortina hotels,—the Miramonti, the Faloria, the Cristallo, the Croce Bianca and Aquila Nera, for instance. And the other day this valley became in fact again Italian!

We have now crossed the Trentino by way of the Adamello and Fassa Alps. We have the dolomitic Ampezzo Alps in front and around us, and going through them we emerge at the town of Ampezzo itself. At San Vito, six miles from Cortina, we pass into Italy again. Most travelers proceeding eastward, however, seem to prefer to turn from Cortina, northward to Toblach and the valley of the Drave and so to Villach, and Trieste. But I found it more picturesque to proceed along the south instead of the north side of the Carnic Alps, the summit ridge of which marks the boundary between Italy and Austria. Especially as one approaches Pontebba, one passes through a wild and romantic region fitted by Nature to be the scene of the surprise attack on the Austrians by the Italian *Alpini* and the customs' guards advancing over smugglers' trails and surprising the enemy. In this manner the Italians occupied some heights hereabouts on the Austrian side.

GORITZ

Proceeding eastward by the Austrian road from Pontebba to Fort Malborghetto (a hard Austrian nut for the Italians to crack, for they have already sent over a thousand shells against it without much effect) we come to Tarvis, a magnificently situated village. With the inspiring Julian Alps on our left and with some great hills on our right, we can walk, cycle or drive south to Trieste, over a hundred miles away.

The first feature of special interest on this journey is the passage of the Predil Pass. It might form a northern boundary of the land which the Italians want. Then we descend to Plezzo, in the valley of the Isonzo, the



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE ISONZO RIVER, WHERE THE ITALIANS WILL MEET THE AUSTRIANS

river offered by Austria in the negotiations before the present war as the new Italian frontier. But Italy preferred the Julian Alps. No wonder. In some instances their slopes are so steep as only to be taken by surprise night attacks, as that of the *Alpini*, who crawled up, roped together, and carried a machine gun in pieces, strapped to their shoulders.

Now down the stream to Caporetto, captured by Italy during the first days of the war with Austria. That war was declared on May 23rd, 1915. On May 24th, the Italians crossed their eastern border in three places, all of whose names begin with a "C,"—Cervignano, on the Adriatic; Cormons, to the north, and Caporetto, still further to the north. The Austrians fell back and massed their troops at Gradisca, Tolmino and Malborghetto. Caporetto is only 770 feet high, an indication of the rapid descent from the top of the pass. Above Caporetto to the left rises Monte Nero, over 7000 feet high. It dominates the whole valley and was the scene of a strenuous Italian progressive investment during June and July. Progressive, indeed! For the Austrians (a resourceful and redoubtable foe), like the Italians, know the value of placing cannon in

protected tunnels, dynamited to within a foot or so of the surface of the mountain, with a hole drilled through that surface just large enough to afford room for the gun-muzzle.

TOLMINO, WHERE DANTE SOJOURNED

Still further down the stream lies Tolmino, where Dante is supposed to have spent some time; at all events, they show you a castle in which they claim that he wrote some of his "Divine Comedy." But the name Tolmino has a very present significance, for it has been a central contested point between Italy and Austria. It lies half-way down the Isonzo line, along which the Austrians, several hundred thousand strong, have, in general, successfully occupied a front capable of being defended against the greatly superior Italian force, the Austrians being entrenched on the mountains and hills of the Julian Alps. This makes one particular Italian achievement all the more significant. Above Tolmino a regiment of *Bersaglieri* was isolated on the eastern bank when the enemy destroyed three pontoon bridges over which supporting troops were to cross the river. Instead of waiting to be attacked, the *Bersaglieri* flung themselves against the foremost trenches, making it im-

possible for the enemy to plant his guns against them. The *Bersaglieri* held most of the trenches until the pontoon bridges were reconstructed. For this action, Colonel di Rossi, who was in command, was deservedly decorated and promoted to the rank of Major-General.

Eight miles beyond, through the gorge of the Isonzo is Canale, where one welcomes southern vegetation. Three miles farther on is Plava, which the Italians carried at the point of the bayonet. Passing Monte Santo, which may well be ascended for the sake of the fine view, eight miles journey brings us to Goritz, or Görz, or Gorizia, as you like, the capital of the crownland, pleasantly situated on the Isonzo, and guarded by a hill topped by the ruined castle of the old counts of Goritz. Here the traveler sits him down and reflects on the history of a little-known, but interesting, province. It has always been a borderland. The 31,000 inhabitants of the city of Goritz represent the clash of confluence of three races, the Italian, Germanic, and the Slav. The Italian impress predominates, as is proper in a place where over half the population is Italian. Town and province have belonged to Austria since the year 1500. Charles X of France died here, and, half a century later, his grandson, the Comte de Chambord. Their remains lie in a Franciscan convent to the east of the town. The principal industries of the place are silk- and cotton-spinning and the manufacture of liqueurs. Goritz is esteemed as a winter residence, being free from the enervating influence of a resort in more tropical climates.

GRADISCA AND MONFALCONE

We now journey on in the low country through hedge-bordered roads and surrounded by fertile fields some five miles to Gradisca, a name often used with that of Goritz in defining the crownland, indeed, one of the titles of the Austrian emperors is that of Prince-Count of Goritz and Gradisca. The Italians occupied Gradisca a fortnight after the war began. Seven miles farther and we are in Monfalcone, a town of about 6000 inhabitants, close to the Adriatic, which shines before us to the right, while to the left rises that great, bleak, dreary, wind-swept, limestone highland called Carso in Italian (Karst in German) which extends into Croatia. Monfalcone became a familiar name in the newspaper columns by reason of its capture by the Italians early in the war. Its loss was especially disastrous to the Austrians because of the location there of the

electricity plant which supplies Trieste with light and power, of the large shipbuilding yards, and of the laboratory for the manufacture of gases. To the south of Monfalcone, at San Giovanni, the river Timavo, which has lost itself twenty miles back in the grottoes of the Karst, reappears and empties into the Adriatic. There are other subterranean water courses in that highland, which, full of caverns and crevasses, presents extreme difficulty to any invading army and equal protection to any defending army, as the Italians have repeatedly found to their terrible cost. Above us over the brow of the highland are the important railway junctions of Nabresina and Opicina, the scenes of bombardments by Italian dirigibles. About four miles before reaching Trieste and jutting out into the sea is a romantically placed castle, a place of melancholy interest, too, for it was the property of the Emperor Maximilian of Mexico. The Mexican crown was offered to him here in 1864. If he could have looked forward to his execution three years later and the insanity of the Empress Carlotta ever since he might not have been so ready to accept that crown.

TRIESTE

And so, over a superb boulevard, we come to Trieste, far outdistancing Venice in strategic importance, but far behind it, of course, in beauty. The old Roman Tergeste does not disclose, as do most towns in Italy, a Roman origin. There is, indeed, a fine old Roman arch, and there are plenty of antiquities in the museums but Trieste appears distinctly modern. Somehow one thinks of it as not dating further back than 1203, when Venice conquered it and held it for 160 years, or until Leopold of Austria became its overlord. It has remained Austrian ever since, save between 1797 and 1805 and 1809 and 1813, when the French held it. Of the 230,000 inhabitants of Trieste no less than 170,000 are Italian, whereas but 43,000 are Slovene, and 17,000 German. Trieste consists of two parts, a low part bordering the harbor, with well kept, level streets, and a higher and older part with narrow, steep streets, some of which are not possible for wagons.

We looked in vain for the interesting churches which one finds even in the very small Italian towns. To be sure, the cathedral of San Giusto is not uninteresting, for it stands on the site of an old Roman temple, as we may see from the remains in the tower and in the capitals, and furthermore, it is



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THE GRAND CANAL IN TRIESTE

composed of three old early Christian churches. The museums are more interesting. Still more so is the Giardino Pubblico, or the public garden, in which one learns to realize that Trieste is really a border town, that back of it in the Karst lives a population wholly Slav, and apparently ready at any time to descend upon the city and swamp it.

ISTRIA

The same impression comes to him who journeys from Trieste southwest into the suburbs, and so on into the orchards and vineyards, the forests and pasture land of Istria. Here in almost every case a nucleus of Italians forms a strong majority of the inhabitants of each town, except Pola, the most important of all and the great Austrian naval station where the bulk of the Austrian fleet has been cooped up, a stone's throw away from the ruins of the old Roman amphitheatre. Italian dominance might be expected when we remember that, though the Slavs penetrated into Istria in the seventh century, the greater part of the province was included in the dominions of Venice as late as 1797 when Napoleon ended the Venetian Republic. The Istrian rural districts are now almost wholly Slav. And the Slavs are increasing in numbers and strength. They are more prolific than the Italians and are

growing faster in proportion. About three-fifths of the population speak Slav dialects as against only about two-fifths of Italian speaking people. Already the Slavs demand that Croatian be given equal authority with Italian in municipal notices and in the courts, and it seems difficult to resist this demand. In its aspiration, therefore, for a readjustment of boundaries Italy has been animated, perhaps, first of all, by a desire to preserve the integrity of the Italian language wherever possible. In the Trentino this has been an easy matter. Much the same is true of Goritz and Trieste. But in Istria, the case is different. Again, as far as a military frontier is concerned, the winning of the Trentino and most of Goritz would give to Italy what she most needs, without allowing her desires to run out of territory linguistically hers. The possession of Trieste, however, Austria's great commercial seaport, would inevitably sow the seeds of future conflict with Austria, and with Germany, which also needs the port. Hence, might it not be a fitting destiny for Trieste to become a free city? Appreciating this, Italy had asked that Trieste and the surrounding district be made an independent state, but with recognition of the Italian sovereign.

Around the corner from Pola is Fiume, Hungary's chief seaport, with its forty thou-

sand population, mostly non-Italian, and then comes the province of Croatia, with nine-tenths of the inhabitants Croats and Serbs.

DALMATIA

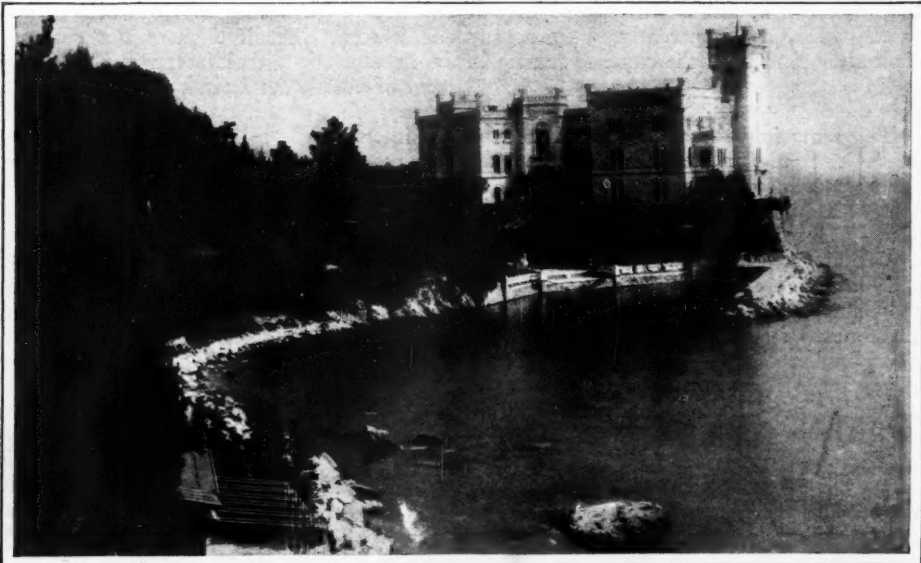
Then come Dalmatia and the Dalmatian Islands, conquered by Venice in 1420 and held for a century until, after the battle of Mohacs, the Turks absorbed the greater part of the country, leaving only the maritime cities to Venice. Venice lost the cities to Austria when the republic fell. Though these cities remain Italian to all intents and purposes, Italy has far less cause on the ground of language to pretend to control Dalmatia, for Italian is spoken only in the ports, whereas the whole of the hinterland is Slav. The Dinaric Alps, forming a wall between Dalmatia and Croatia-Bosnia, mark no separation of language. As less than three per cent. of the Dalmatian population is Italian, and over ninety-six per cent. Serbo-Croat, it would seem as if Serbia and Montenegro had racially a very much greater right than has Italy to monopolize the country of *maraschino* (made in Dalmatia from the *marasca*, or cherry). On the other hand, no one can have ever seen the ports of Lussin, Zara, Sebenico, Spalato, and Ragusa without feeling that the Italian has a good deal on his side when he says that it is a case of quantity versus quality.

AVLONA

Now past Montenegro and Albania, to the southernmost point on the Eastern Adriatic shore, we come to Avlona, the best harbor in Albania, a port which Italy seized last autumn. We can see that the possession of this point,—only forty miles distant across the Strait of Otranto from the Italian mainland,—might make the whole Adriatic Sea practically an Italian lake. The possession, therefore, of a few more miles of coast land or a few more islands in the Adriatic would not apparently make any vital difference to a power which controlled that sea's gateway.

ITALY'S REASONS FOR ENTERING WAR

Italy's demands for territory in exchange for a continuance of neutrality do not tell the whole story of her determination to break with Austria. Far from it. The cause of hostility between Italy and Austria began many years ago in Italy's struggle for liberation from Austria. This struggle can hardly be said to have ended as long as the Trentino remains Austrian. In my opinion, therefore, Italy's chief reason for going to war was not mere land hunger, as has been often assumed. The compelling causes, I believe, were, first, a spontaneous sympathy with those who are resisting oppression, and, second, a longing to unite Italian-speaking people with the home country.



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CHATEAU OF NURAMAR, BELONGING TO THE ROYAL AUSTRIAN FAMILY IN TRIESTE



THE STEAMSHIP "KROONLAND" OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC LINE, WITH PASSENGERS AND FREIGHT, PASSING THROUGH THE CULEBRA CUT TOWARDS THE PACIFIC OCEAN

THE FIRST YEAR AT PANAMA

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN

(Author of "The American Merchant Marine: Its History and Romance")

A YEAR of the Panama Canal has now passed into history. The Canal was opened to commerce on August 15, 1914, when the stalwart *Ancon*, a Panama Railroad liner, that as a transport from New York had borne a notable part in the construction of the waterway, went through from Cristobal to Balboa. There followed the next day the great *Arizonan* of the American-Hawaiian Steamship Company, and the first foreign craft on a foreign voyage came on August 22, the *Daldorch*, of Glasgow, with wheat from Puget Sound for Ireland. Sudden war had broken out; ships of belligerent flags were flying for shelter, and the best of them were being commandeered by their governments.

Twelve of the fourteen vessels that traversed the Canal during the first week were Americans. In the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for May, 1913, beginning an article on "American Ships at Panama," the present writer had asked: "Is the American flag to be a stranger in the Panama Canal when it is completed? Will all maritime nations be prepared and ready then to make use of the

Canal except the nation whose money and energy have built it?" The year since August, 1914, has brought its clear and gratifying answer. The Stars and Stripes have led all other national colors; the merchant fleet that has made best use of the new waterway is the fleet of the United States.

CANAL SHIPS AND CARGOES

All told, the net canal tonnage, on which tolls are based, of vessels traversing the Panama Canal for the twelve months ending July 31, 1915, was 4,404,364, of which by far the greatest single element was the wholly American coast-to-coast tonnage of 1,416,294. In addition to this coast fleet, other American cargo vessels made a certain number of foreign voyages, particularly in the trade to and from the west coast of South America, where they were employed because of war-effects upon European tonnage. Throughout the Government fiscal year ending June 30, 1915, the tolls paid at Panama by the ships of all nationalities in all trades amounted to \$4,343,383, while the actual cost of operation for the same period was \$4,112,550.

Thus, superficially, the Canal was self-sustaining, but it must be remembered that in this statement no allowance is made for interest on the capital invested, depreciation, etc. For the time being, and until normal conditions are established, the Canal must be regarded as a great, permanent public work, the value of which cannot be measured by the commercial standard of dividends.

Ships from Australasia, the nearer edge of the Far East, and the west coast of South America for Europe and the Atlantic Coast of the United States, and ships outward bound from Europe and the Atlantic Coast on the reverse routes have constituted the chief foreign tonnage passing through the Canal. These have been "tramp" vessels or the pioneers of small freight lines as a rule; few passenger and mail liners were among them.

Crude materials and foodstuffs have made up a large part of the cargoes eastbound and westbound,—sugar, coal, copper, flour, iron-ore, lumber, oil, nitrates, wines, and grain. But manufactures of iron and steel, machinery and railroad materials conspicuously figured in both coastwise and overseas commerce. As to "general cargo," including much highly finished and valuable merchandise, it is significant that out of 100,027 tons carried through the canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in June last, 42,929 tons were in the American coastwise trade, and out of 38,614 tons from the Pacific to the Atlantic 33,576 tons were in the coastwise trade, whose ships made up more than one-third of the entire traffic of the new waterway.

A GREAT NEW COASTWISE FLEET

When Professor Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania, the accomplished commissioner on traffic and tolls, submitted his estimate of the tonnage that would utilize the Canal, he placed the American coast-to-coast shipping at one-tenth of the whole. Of course, Professor Johnson could not anticipate the paralysis of European services that followed the outbreak of the great war, but manifestly he had no realizing sense of the vigor and aggressiveness of American shipowners in this long-voyage coastwise commerce.

It was too hastily assumed, when Congress in 1912 barred the Canal to all vessels in which transcontinental railroads had any interest, that the volume of American shipping at Panama would be heavily reduced by this summary exclusion of "the richest and most powerful transportation companies in America." But fortunately there were resourceful

men who were shipowners and nothing else, wholly without railroad affiliations, and they went boldly ahead to build or buy or charter steamships fit for the 6000-mile passage from New York or Boston to Puget Sound—in fact a large fleet was instantly available in the ships of coast-to-coast services already operating by transfer via the Isthmuses of Tehuantepec and Panama, or over the long old route through the Straits of Magellan. Even if war had not come, the American steamship companies would have been found to be far more thoroughly prepared with ships, terminals, and immediate plans for the full use of the Canal than the shipping managers of Europe.

SEVERAL FLEETS FROM MANY PORTS

In August a year ago and the months following, at least six wholly separate and competing steamship services, with regularly scheduled sailings, were in operation between American ports on the Atlantic and American ports on the Pacific. There were departures not only from New York and Boston, but from Philadelphia, Norfolk, Charleston, and New Orleans, and on the west coast the Canal ships plied to all important ports, as traffic warranted, between San Diego and Puget Sound. Besides the regular liners, there were frequent "steam schooners" and "tramps," for coal, grain, and lumber.

This coast-to-coast trade was an all-American commerce that under the century-old policy of our Government could be borne only in American ships. It was, and is, also unmistakably the best-served commerce that floats through Panama. The men who owned and manned the coastwise steamers knew that the competition which they faced was fair and equal competition, and that they could not be driven off the route by low foreign wages or high foreign subsidies. Therefore, an abundance of American capital could be enlisted for the building and operation of a large coast-to-coast fleet, with the promise of a reasonable return, and American ocean shipyards were, and are, full of an unwonted activity.

The Panama Canal has entered directly into the calculations of every merchant who has built an ocean-going ship in the past three or four years on the Atlantic or Pacific coast of the United States, and the same influence has been potent on the Great Lakes also. No single cause has done so much in this generation to add first-class steel steamers of an ocean type, fit for auxiliary naval use, to the American merchant marine.

LARGE SHIPS BUILDING

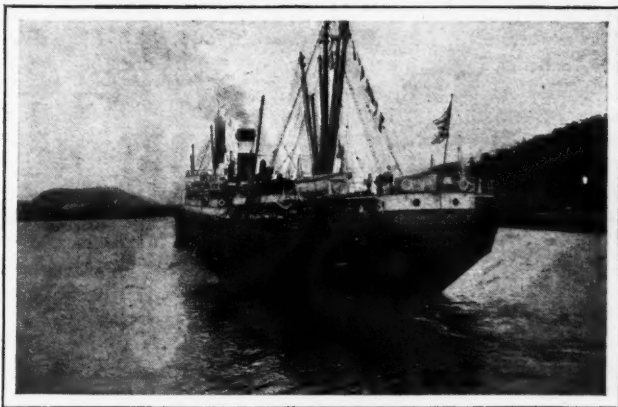
The American-Hawaiian Company, with twenty-five ships afloat, is building three more in the yard of the Maryland Steel Company near Baltimore,—the largest ocean-cargo fleet beneath American colors. W. R. Grace & Company on their Atlantic and Pacific line have four new steamships and are building another in the Cramp yard at Philadelphia. The Luckenbach Company, with a present fleet of ten or more, has one steamer on the ways in the great yard at Newport News, and two in the Fore River Yard near Boston.

These are all large steamers of a thorough "seagoing" class, much larger than the usual coasting craft of either seaboard, and of proportional importance to the commerce of the nation in peace and to the auxiliary defense in war. These are the regular liners; the new cargo craft under construction, designed for "tramp" trade from coast to coast or general carrying, are even more numerous. There is no "monopoly" in this Canal trade or any sign of it, but stiff and incessant competition for all cargo offering.

The Panama-Pacific line operates from New York to San Francisco two stately passenger and freight steamships formerly of the Red Star transatlantic service, the *Finland* and *Kroonland*, each of 12,600 tons. There are passenger accommodations also on some ships of other services. The Panama Railroad Steamship Company, so active in the work of canal construction, continues a weekly service from New York to and through the Canal to Balboa, connecting for Panama, South Pacific, Central American, and Mexican ports. Beautiful white ships of the United Fruit Company run from North Atlantic and Gulf ports, with passengers and cargo to the Canal Zone.

FEW FOREIGN-GOING SHIPS

But significantly there is not one American steamship service that goes through the Canal and out upon the Pacific to South America, Australasia, or the Orient. Only an occasional ship bound on a single voyage traverses the Canal in international commerce. The American flag is upheld at Panama al-



THE OPENING OF THE PANAMA CANAL: THE STEAMSHIP "ANCON" IN THE SEA-LEVEL SECTION OF THE CANAL SOUTH OF MIRAFLORES LOCKS, AUGUST 15, 1914

most wholly by the great and active coast-to-coast fleet plying in our national trade where no foreigners can follow.

There need be no mystery about this. All the chief maritime governments of Europe directly or indirectly pay in subsidy or bounty the tolls of their chief lines of steamships plying through Suez. Some of these governments were preparing before the war to adopt the same policy at Panama. They have deferred their plans, but it has just been announced that the Japanese Government has granted a generous subsidy, sufficient to pay the tolls and more, to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha for a new line across the Pacific to Panama and via the Canal to New York and Boston.

American ships engaged in Oriental commerce through the Panama Canal would have to pay out of their earnings the full toll of from \$10,000 to \$20,000 for every round voyage, for which their Japanese competitors would be compensated from their imperial treasury. Those American ships, under the new La Follette seamen's law, would be required to pay white crews of seamen and firemen from \$35 to \$55 per man per month. Japanese ships, with which the La Follette law does not interfere, would hire their Asiatics for \$8 per month. These brief hard facts—wages and tolls—explain why not one American steamship has been or is being built for Panama-Pacific international commerce.

When the war is ended, the original plan of European steamship managers will be carried out. British steamers of the Royal Mail, with a liberal subsidy to pay the tolls and smooth the way, will be on the route from Liverpool to Puget Sound and

San Francisco. French ships, German ships, Russian, Swedish, Austrian and Italian ships, whose benign governments reimburse their principal lines for the tolls at Suez, will be steaming out through the Caribbean and up and down the Pacific. There is neither place nor disposition here to debate the Panama toll question or interpret the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. Congress passed on that issue on June 12, 1914. We shall soon be face-to-face with some unconsidered consequences.

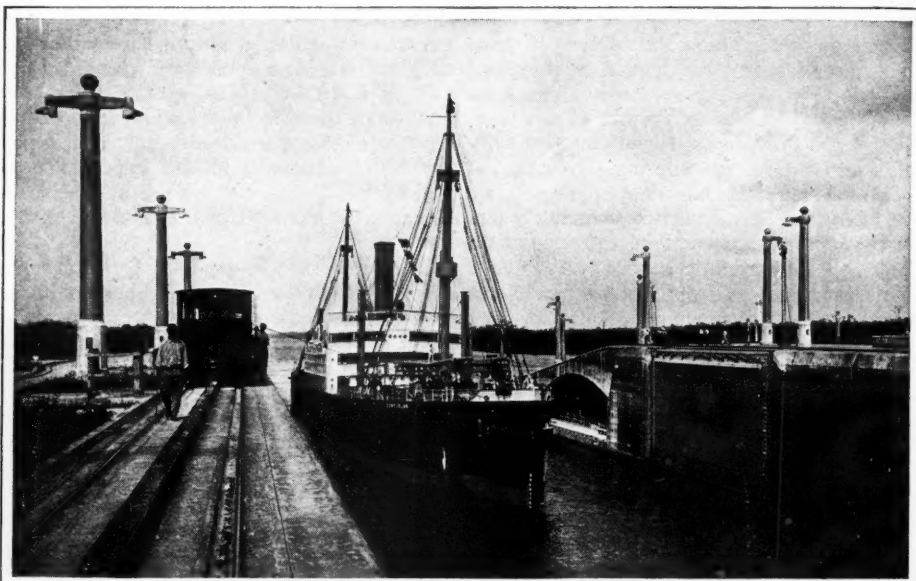
OF CHIEF ADVANTAGE TO AMERICA

However, the American flag in the coast-to-coast trade will continue to float securely and proudly at Panama so long as the historic coastwise law remains unchanged. A year ago, in August, 1914, an effort to uproot it was overwhelmingly defeated in Washington. Those in this country and abroad who urged the repeal insisted that when the Canal was opened not enough American ships would be forthcoming, even for the coastwise commerce, and that foreign ships would have to be employed. That this was an error is now demonstrated by experi-

ence. American ships in coast-to-coast trade have proved to be numerous and adequate. Freight rates from coast to coast have been substantially reduced; a great new commerce is developing.

Throughout this abnormal year of war, American shipowners of the Atlantic-Pacific fleet could have enriched themselves by abandoning their proper services and chartering all their ships at unexampled rates to carry foodstuffs and munitions to Europe. But they have not done this; they have occasionally employed thus only a few spare vessels; every one of the chief services has been steadily maintained. These shipowners have honorably recognized that their first duty was to their own flag and to their own countrymen.

The war has disrupted many and disturbed all of the accustomed routes of ocean commerce, but it has undoubtedly shaken least of all the new Panama carrying between the two coasts of the United States. The Panama Canal in its first year has benefited most of all the commerce and the shipping of the people whose wealth and resolution have created it.



THE STEAMSHIP "HONOLULU" OF THE AMERICAN-HAWAIIAN STEAMSHIP COMPANY, WITH PASSENGERS AND FREIGHT, ENTERING THE FIRST LOCK AT GATUN BOUND FOR THE PACIFIC COAST



EWES AND LAMBS PASTURED IN THE WALLOWA NATIONAL FOREST, OREGON

(The lambs were nine pounds heavier than the same class of lambs from bands that had been herded on the same kind of land outside of pasture)

PUBLIC GRAZING LANDS: THE RANGE HOMESTEAD

BY DWIGHT B. HEARD

President of the American National Live Stock Association

EVER since President Hayes, nearly forty years ago, appointed a land commission to consider, among other matters, legislation relating to the control of the open range, the nation's great natural stock-breeding pastures, there has been a constantly growing conviction among practical stockmen of the West that to prevent the gradual destruction of the range through over-grazing and build up its carrying capacity through intelligent use, some definite national legislation was necessary, that regulated use under federal control might be substituted for the prevailing conditions of indiscriminate and wasteful misuse.

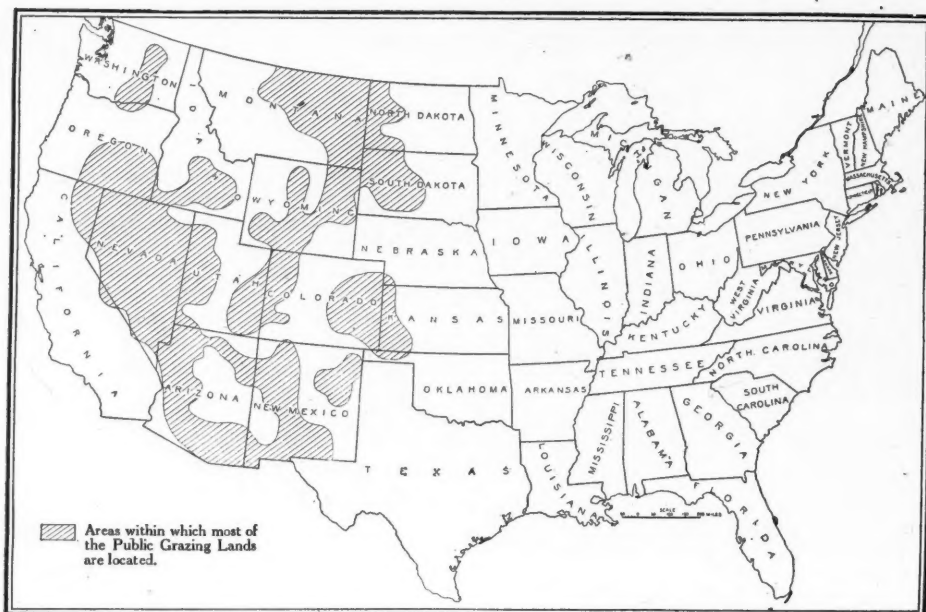
With no control of this public range and no determination of the respective grazing rights of the occupants, the stock-grazing industry has naturally been more or less of a struggle for existence. Constant clashes of interest have occurred between stockmen, particularly between sheep and cattle men, resulting in almost constant friction and sometimes bloodshed.

A few years ago, in a letter, a clear-thinking young friend of mine from Arizona voiced this situation in the following picturesque language:

The federal control of the public grazing lands is a question of greater importance to our country than is the child-labor question, or the negro question, or any other problem before our country except banking regulations and the Mississippi River. This question can never be solved with a Colt and Winchester, but the people who live on the range will keep on trying to reach a solution with the aid of those two "American civilizers."

Sheep, by nature and necessity, are migratory; cattle, by nature and by necessity, become domiciled. Sheep, by nature and by man, go in herds; cattle abhor close herd, nor does their protection demand it. The maintenance of just and fair relations between these two antagonistic interests can only be accomplished by federal control.

Of recent years the steady rise in the cost of meat has made the general public realize that something is radically wrong in the matter of meat production and compelled them



to look about for a remedy. Fortunately there is one.

That this problem of protection and regulated control of the public grazing lands is a vital one and of national size, is evident when we consider that the area involved, according to the latest Government figures, is about 280,000,000 acres,—nearly one-sixth of the area of the United States, excluding Alaska, which means that Uncle Sam's "Open Range" is greater than the combined area of Germany, France, and Belgium.

While 99 per cent. of these public grazing lands is located in the States of Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming, the problem of how to obtain the best use of these lands is one in which the people of the entire nation are interested, for the reason that not less than 5,000,000 head of cattle and horses,—of which 4,000,000 head are cattle, and 16,000,000 head of sheep,—are now grazed on this public domain.

BENEFITS FROM FEDERAL CONTROL

It is generally admitted by practical men who have made a disinterested and thorough study of this range-grazing problem that a continuance of the present wasteful and unsatisfactory condition hampers development, spells eventual destruction to the range, will result in a steadily decreasing supply of range cattle, and a resultant increase in the cost of

living to the people of the nation. On the other hand, by establishing conditions of reasonable regulated use under federal administration, an immense increase in the meat production would be secured. The perpetuation instead of the destruction of range grasses would be brought about; water development, so vital to the best value of the range, would be encouraged, with the consequent opening up of unused range; coöperation would take the place of friction; better breeding would be justified and the stock industry generally would be placed on a permanent and business-like basis, and as a result of this systematic management of one of our greatest national resources, there should result a definite decrease in the price of meat products to the consumer.

GRAZING IN THE NATIONAL FORESTS

We are fortunate in having a convincing object-lesson of the practical success of the federal control of grazing within the National Forests, and these public grazing lands, which it is now proper to put under federal control, often lie immediately adjacent to these forest ranges, only separated by an imaginary line. Under the administration of the Forest Service these forest ranges have been built up; their carrying capacity greatly increased; coöperation among the users of the range has been substituted for the old-time friction and bloodshed, home-making has greatly increased, and to-day the amount of



VIRGIN GRAZING LANDS.—SAND, AMOLE WEED, AND CEDAR

stock now grazed in the National Forests is nearly 50 per cent. greater than on the same area ten years ago.

When this policy of federal control of the grazing in the National Forests was established, some twelve years since, it met with the most violent opposition on the part of the stockmen who had had free use of these ranges, and it is a convincing demonstration of the practical value of grazing regulation that the stockmen using the National Forests to-day are almost a unit in favor of maintaining this federal control, and would infinitely prefer to continue paying the reasonable fees charged than to go back to the free and unregulated use of the range.

The State of Texas has also been exceptionally successful in handling its grazing lands through a leasing system, and as a result has increased the cattle grazed on the pasture lands of that State nearly 50 per cent.

THE QUESTION IN CONGRESS,—THE KENT BILL

During the past ten years many bills have been introduced in Congress for the purpose of improving conditions on the public grazing ranges. Among them have been the Burkett bill; the LaFollette bill; the Curtis-Scott bill; the Lever bill, and last year a bill was introduced in Congress by Representative William Kent, of California, himself a stockman of large practical experience, which had the endorsement of the American National Live Stock Association, the American Conservation Association, and the approval of many officers of the Government who had practically studied the situation; and the general principles of which were endorsed by the National Wool Growers' Association. Of all of these bills the Kent bill is probably the

most complete, just, and reasonable yet introduced.

Briefly analyzed, the Kent bill provides for the creation of grazing districts upon the unreserved, unappropriated public lands on proclamation of the President; fully protects homesteaders and prospectors in all their rights; authorizes the issuance of grazing permits, including the right to fence for not to exceed ten years; and provides for the payment of fees similar to those paid in the National Forests for grazing. Twenty-five per cent of such fees goes to the district in which the grazing lands are situated for the benefit of the public schools and public roads in that section. In granting leasing permits the priority of the present occupants of the ranges is recognized and provision is made for the creation of a local committee representing various classes of live stock. This committee, in coöperation with the officers appointed by the Government, shall make a division of the range between the different kinds of stock, to determine the number of animals which can be safely grazed, and have the general administrative handling of local matters, always subject to the control of the Government.

Professor J. J. Thornber, of the University of Arizona, who has spent many years in a scientific study of the range conditions and who is an eminent authority on range grasses, in an address favoring this bill, makes the following statement:

Build up these ranges as it is possible to build them up, and we shall begin once more to ship beef products out of this country instead of shipping them in. I sincerely believe that this is the greatest question before the American people to-day, and I will make no exception.

It affects both the East and the West, the consumer and the producer. It threatens the future economic policy of this country. It is all-important to you stockmen. It lies with you to go before Congress and demand reasonable legislation.

PROVISION FOR STOCK-RAISING HOMESTEADS

The Kent bill was introduced at the last session of Congress, and at the same time Mr. Ferguson of New Mexico introduced what was known as the 640-Acre Range Homestead bill, which had the approval of the Department of the Interior and finally passed the House.



CATTLE GRAZING IN NATIONAL FOREST

This bill provides that on such lands as the Secretary of the Interior may designate as stock-raising lands, a stock-raising homestead of 640 acres may be made on land of such character that 640 acres of it will reasonably support a family. Cultivation is not required, but improvement of not less than \$1.25 per acre must be made on the land,—one-half within three years from date of entry.

The bill provides for considerable freedom in the selection of the lands and it is believed by its advocates that in a considerable portion of the West it would be availed of quite largely. It at best, however, could probably be used on only a small percentage of the vast

grazing area. There seems no reason, however, why the principles of the two bills may not be combined, a general classification of all the public domain promptly made, and this long-discussed and vexed question reasonably settled.

For many years the opponents of the various bills introduced for the control and leasing of the public lands have contended that such a measure would interfere with homemaking,—handicap the small man and undermine the doctrine of State rights, because of the federal control involved. Some of this criticism has undoubtedly been sincere,—much of it has been mere sand thrown in the air to obscure the real issue. The stockmen

of the West know too well the value to the community of a real home to put any obstacle in the way of the genuine homesteader, but are glad and willing to encourage genuine homesteading to the utmost; and know full well that the best asset any community can have is homes filled with contented and industrious people.

Many of the stockmen are homesteaders themselves and it is the sheerest nonsense to suggest that they would in any way attempt



GOOD GRAZING LANDS IN CEDAR BRAKES

to handicap a man in his efforts to establish a home. As to range control giving the big man an advantage over the small one, it is difficult for me to see where there is any sincerity in this argument, for under present conditions of uncontrolled use, the big man with the long pocket-book has certainly the advantage and there can be no question in the world that if a measure of range control is passed, we shall have more and more small herds,—which means what we want in the West,—and more and more homes.

This whole question was brought to a focus last spring when a number of us appeared at a public hearing before the committee of public lands of the House, at which the Kent bill was discussed in its relation to the Ferguson Grazing Homestead bill. At this hearing large numbers of representative stockmen, some of small and others of large interests, running both sheep and cattle on the public domain, advocated the early passage of some measure similar to the Kent bill,—stated frankly that they desired no legislation which would in any way interfere with

homesteading, and suggested that the proper way to proceed in this matter of such vital importance to the nation was to secure without delay a general classification of the 280,000,000 acres of the public domain and on such portion of this land as it was found that 640 acres would reasonably support a family, put into action the principles of the Ferguson Grazing Homestead bill. While the balance of the public domain, not suitable for homesteading, should be leased along the lines advocated in the Kent bill and the present wretched waste going on in this vast area stopped.

When we consider this matter, we must not forget that the population of this nation has increased in the past thirty-five years from 50,000,000 to 99,000,000 people, and that on the other hand in the same period, the carrying capacity of the public grazing lands has tremendously decreased. The time has certainly come to stop this waste,—to begin to build up and to substitute coöperation for friction, and scientific management for recklessness.



ON AN ARIZONA CATTLE-RANCH NEAR FLAGSTAFF





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SIGNING THE TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND CHINA, ON MAY 25, AT PEKING

(The Chinese diplomats are at the left of the table, and the Japanese at the right. Beginning at the left, are: Tsao Jou-Ling, Chinese Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs; Lou Tsen-Tsiang, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs; Sze Lu-Piau, secretary; Yukicki Obata, First Secretary of the Japanese Legation at Peking; Hioki Eki, Japanese Minister to China; and Toru Takao, Third Secretary of the Japanese Legation)

THE NEW CHINO-JAPANESE TREATIES AND THEIR IMPORT

BY T. IYENAGA
(Of the University of Chicago)

THE purpose of this article is to lay before the American people, through the courtesy of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, the exact scope and main terms of the new Chino-Japanese Agreement and to invite their study of the reasons which prompted it and its effect upon the United States.

The new Agreement consists of two treaties, accompanied by thirteen exchanges of diplomatic notes, signed on May 25 and ratified on June 9. In the preambles the two contracting parties state that their desire "to maintain the general peace of the Far East and to further strengthen the relations of amity and good neighborhood existing between the two countries" and "to develop the economic relations of the two countries in the regions of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia," has led to the conclusion of the treaties. Baron Takaaki Kato, Japan's Foreign Minister, further explains in one of his communications that "in opening the present negotiations with the Chinese Government, the Imperial Government was actuated by the desire to adjust matters to meet the new situation created by the war between

Japan and Germany and of strengthening, in the interest of a firm and lasting peace in the Far East, the bond of amity and friendship between Japan and China by removing from the relations of the two countries various causes of misunderstanding and suspicion." These are the usual formulas of diplomatic language, and elucidation is needed for a clearer understanding of the motive that inspired Japan to submit her proposals to China. Before we discuss the point, however, let us examine the terms of the agreement, so that our deductions shall be based upon actual facts and not on surmises.

THE SHANTUNG TREATY

In obedience to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, Japan entered the war and captured Kiaochow. While the stronghold has thus been lost to Germany, the great influence she had developed in China, politically and commercially, is by no means a thing of the past.¹ As China was powerless

¹ For the detailed description of German activity in China see the writer's article "Why Japan Went to War With Germany," in "Europe at War" published by the Review of Reviews Company.

to recover Kiaochoh from Germany, so she is to-day impotent to resist should the invading tide at any moment roll back. It was, therefore, at once the right and duty of Japan to see to the proper disposition of the leased territory of Kiaochoh and all the German concessions in its hinterland, so that the object of the campaign and fruits of victory might be securely safeguarded. Such a disposal is agreed upon in the "Treaty Respecting the Province of Shantung," with the following provisions:

China agrees to give full assent to the agreement Japan may make with Germany regarding the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions heretofore enjoyed by the latter in Shantung; that in case a railway connecting Chefoo or Lungkow with the Kiaochoh-Tsinan Railway be constructed, Japanese capitalists shall be consulted for financing the undertaking; that a number of new marts in the province shall be opened for the residence and trade of foreigners; and, finally, that China will never lease or alienate to any foreign power any territory within the province or any island along its coast.

THE SOUTH MANCHURIAN AND EASTERN INNER MONGOLIAN TREATY

Just a decade ago the Portsmouth Treaty made Japan the legatee of what Russia had acquired in South Manchuria. Within that short period the region has seen a remarkable progress in civilization. Through its heart now runs the train equipped with Baldwin locomotives, Pullman and dining cars. Along the road and within the area controlled by Japan new towns, provided with all the equipments of a modern municipality, have come into being; schools, hospitals, scientific institutions have been built; trade has seen a tremendous development; new industries are springing up; the safety of person and property is assured to an extent never before dreamed of by the natives. Altogether the region presents a totally different face from what it wore during the Chinese or Russian regime.¹

But let the reader make no mistake in thinking that Japan controlled the whole of South Manchuria, or that the conditions above described rule in the entire region. Far from it. Out of a territory equal in size to the States of New York and Pennsylvania combined, what was hitherto practically in Japan's hands were the Kuantung territory with an area of 1303 square miles, the railway zone of 70-odd square miles, and the

railway track of about 700 miles with ten feet of land on either side. Beyond that limit the Japanese were barred from extending their activities. Furthermore, the terms of lease of the Kuantung territory, where Port Arthur and Dairen are located, as well as of the railways in Japanese control, were to expire within less than a decade, which necessarily precluded all permanent undertakings. It was to mend these drawbacks and to place Japan's status in those regions on a more lasting basis that the "Treaty Respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia" was negotiated. Its main stipulations are as follows:

The lease of Port Arthur and Dairen and of the South Manchurian and Antung-Mukden Railways are extended to a period of ninety-nine years. The agreement relating to the Kirin-Changchung Railway will be revised on the basis of the other railway loan agreements or of more advantageous terms hereafter contracted by foreign capitalists. Japanese shall be permitted to lease land in South Manchuria for trading, industrial and agricultural purposes, to reside, travel, and engage in various businesses; and to work mines in nine specified mining areas. Japanese subjects are required to present passports to Chinese local authorities for registration, to observe Chinese police laws and regulations and to pay taxes, on their approval by the Japanese consuls. Civil and criminal suits shall be tried by authorities representing the nationality of the defendant, except that land disputes between Japanese and Chinese shall be tried by joint authorities in accordance with the laws and local usages of China. When the judicial system in South Manchuria is thoroughly reformed, all civil and criminal suits involving Japanese subjects shall be wholly tried and decided by Chinese courts. Japanese capitalists shall be first consulted before China contracts either railway or other loans with provincial taxes as security. Preference is also to be given to the appointment of Japanese as political, financial, military and police advisers.

Adjoining South Manchuria on the west there is a plateau known as Eastern Inner Mongolia. It covers one-third of Mongolia, which has an area of 1,367,600 square miles, while two-thirds are covered by Outer Mongolia. On June 6 last the representatives of Russia, Mongolia, and China signed at Kiakta a treaty respecting Outer Mongolia. The new treaty is a sequel to the Russo-Mongolian Convention of November 13, 1912, and the Chino-Russian agreement of November 5, 1913, and tends to tighten the Muscovite grip on the vast region. Eastern Inner Mongolia constitutes a buffer land against the advance of Russia toward China. The provisions of the new Treaty with regard to this region are:

¹ See the writer's article "Japan in South Manchuria," Vol. II., *The Journal of Race Development*, published by Clark University.

In Eastern Inner Mongolia Japanese shall be permitted to join with the Chinese in agricultural and industrial undertakings, and a number of new marts will be opened for the trade and residence of foreigners. The provisions as to railway or other loans and the requirement for the Japanese of producing passports, paying taxes, observing police regulations, and to civil and criminal suits, hold the same in Eastern Inner Mongolia as in South Manchuria.

DECLARATIONS CONCERNING THE HAN-YEH-P'ING COMPANY AND FUKIEN PROVINCE

In Hanyang, in the central part of China, there is an iron works called the Hanyang Steel and Iron Foundry. In the vicinity, a little lower down the Yangtsekiang, are located the Ta-Yeh iron mine and the Ping-hsiang colliery. These three industries are run by the Han-Yeh-P'ing Corporation, so called from the above-mentioned localities. In this company Japanese capitalists have already invested a capital of over \$17,500,000 and, further, the Yedamitsu Steel Foundry of the Japanese Government has made certain engagements relative to the purchase of the Ta-Yeh iron ores. It is with the view of ensuring this contract and safeguarding the rights of Japanese capitalists that the following engagement was made:

China engages to approve the joint undertaking of the company and Japanese capitalists, if such an arrangement is in future concluded, and not to confiscate or to nationalize it, or to permit it to contract any foreign loan other than Japanese.

Another important declaration made by China concerns the coast of Fukien. This province lies opposite Formosa. Strategically viewed, the establishment of any military base by a foreign power within a stone's throw of the Japanese possession would be as objectionable to Japan as it would be to America to see such an establishment on the shores of Magdalena Bay or on St. Thomas. Hence the engagement:

China will in no case permit a foreign power to build a shipyard, naval station, or any other military establishment on the coast of Fukien, nor does she intend to build such an establishment with foreign capital.

RESTORATION OF KIAOCHOW

The above declaration, it is well to remember, is nothing but an emphasis in a more definite form of the non-alienation declaration of Fukien, of April 26, 1898.

Japan makes on her part one significant

declaration about the restoration of Kiaochow to China. It reads:

If, upon the conclusion of the present war, Japan is given an absolutely free hand in disposing of Kiaochow, she will return the leased territory to China subject to these conditions:

1. Opening of Kiaochow as a commercial port.
2. Establishment of a Japanese settlement.
3. Establishment, if desired by the Powers, of an international settlement.
4. Arrangements to be made before the return of Kiaochow as to the disposal of German public establishments and properties.

CHINA'S CONCESSIONS TO JAPAN

The foregoing examination of the Sino-Japanese agreement shows that there is nothing in it that either infringes China's sovereignty, or interferes with the open door policy, or trespasses upon the rights of other powers. Instead of the principle of China's integrity being endangered, it receives a renewed emphasis by the promise of the restoration of Kiaochow and by China's voluntary declaration about the non-alienation of Shantung and "the bays, harbors, and islands along the coast of China." Instead of the open door being "slammed" by Japan's so-called machinations, her efforts have contributed to the opening of new marts in Shantung and Eastern Inner Mongolia, and have paved the way for the establishment of an international settlement in Tsingtau, hitherto a German preserve.

Among the new economic concessions Japan acquired there is none whatever that tends to constitute a monopoly. The greater part of whatever Japan secured by the agreement consists, in fact, of either the confirmation of the interests she actually possesses, or the formal recognition of what has for long been tacitly acknowledged by the world. Some might imagine that Japan obtained valuable concessions for constructing railroads in Shantung, South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia. Nothing of the kind. It is simply the option of financing the railroad undertakings that China has granted. It is purely a precautionary measure, so that Japan's interests in those regions will not be put in jeopardy by the invasion of others. True, what Japan has gained in Shantung and South Manchuria is considerable. But in the former it is the fruit of victory won at no small expenditure of men and money; in the latter it concerns Japan's special position which was secured as the result of two

wars and which, owing to geographical, political and economic reasons, had every claim to be consolidated.

WHAT CHINA GAINS

China, on the other hand, is by no means all the loser. She has, contrary to the assertion of some critics, a good *quid pro quo* to show on her side. The prospective recovery of Kiaochow is one. To have placed Japan under an obligation to give any help she is capable of rendering, when China needs it in resisting foreign aggression, as, for instance, in Shantung, is another. One more must be added, namely, Japan's pronouncement that the judicial autonomy of China in South Manchuria will be restored to her, when the judicial system therein is thoroughly reformed. When once such an initial step is taken it may lead the way for the entire abolition of extra-territoriality ruling in China. This definite curtailment of China's sovereignty, making the foreign settlements in China "Imperium in Imperio," is indeed a hard thorn in her breast, as it was once with Japan, so that China should welcome any prospect that gives promise of recovery of complete judicial autonomy.

JAPAN AS CHINA'S FRIEND

The fundamental policy of Japan toward China, it cannot be too strongly emphasized, is to cement the bond of amity and friendship between the two nations and properly to safeguard thereby their common interests. Self-protection and the protection, so far as it is within her right and privilege, of her neighbor against European aggression, could not but have been the controlling spirit which actuated Japan's recent move. The urgency of taking these protective measures presses upon one, when he sees the world in its present unprecedented commotion. Diplomatic language is so suave and indirect that its full force is not easily appreciated. What Japan told China in the recent negotiations might be rendered in plain English something like this:

"The colossal struggle we are witnessing in Europe is bound to affect us tremendously also. What will be the extent of the remapping of Europe within its own confines as the result of the war? This no one can at present tell. It is, however, beyond doubt that European powers will move after the war with redoubled energy toward the line of least resistance in other parts of the world, either for further gain by the victors or to recoup themselves on the part of the defeated

for the losses sustained. The Far East, unfortunately, is counted among such profitable fields of exploitation. Let us, then, be prepared to protect ourselves lest we be caught napping. We are brothers by race, tradition and culture. We are neighbors, too, related as your saying goes as 'lips to teeth' and it is true 'when the lips wither the teeth go to decay.' Our destinies are linked together,—your safety and mine are one and the same. In the past untold disasters have befallen you,—you have seen European encroachment upon your soil. They have seized fair spots of your land and have mapped out therein what they euphemistically call 'spheres of influence.' Let the history no more be repeated. Kiaochow has just been wrested from Germany and it is my intention to restore it to you. But let us make sure that Kiaochow with all that it means will not be lost to you again. Russia was once driven out from South Manchuria, but who can assure us that it is safe from the hoofs of the Cossacks unless my status therein be consolidated and strengthened? You are blessed with vast resources in land and hidden treasure. Grant me, then, the privilege of participating in their development, so that we shall grow together in strength, wealth and power. Above all, let amity and friendship be our guide, our motto, for we stand or fall together. Thus and only thus can a lasting peace in the Far East be secured."

Would that China might take Japan for her best friend! China has, however, many suitors and is often at a loss to select her true lover. This fact, coupled with China's weakness, makes the position of Japan in the Far East an extremely difficult and delicate one, and the correct adjustment of the Chino-Japanese relation a hard task. That Japan wants China for the Chinese cannot be gainsaid. To impute, as some critics are persistently doing, that Japan harbors a sinister design of ultimately making China a second Korea is simply ridiculous. It is tantamount to confessing their ignorance of the dynamic strength of China and putting a poor estimate on the intelligence of Japanese statesmen. Such an undertaking is not only beyond the range of possibility but would be to court disaster and ruin for the conqueror. While Japan wants China for the Chinese she, however, wants her to be a self-reliant, strong neighbor state, not a moribund one powerless to resist the pressure and exactions of European Powers. For upon this condition depends Japan's own welfare.

Beside commercial interests, Japan has in

China most vital political interest, for the shaping of events in the latter might not only undermine Japan's position on the Asiatic mainland, won at an enormous sacrifice of blood and treasure, but might endanger even her national existence. For self-protection, therefore, Japan cannot remain idle while China's weakness constitutes a constant source of trouble in the Far East and while China helplessly strips herself of valuable territory and rights at the bidding of European Powers. "The ultimate aim of our China policy," says Count Okuma, "has been no other than to awaken her from this morbid torpor in order to insure her future prosperity and avoid conflict with the European nations." Over and over the warning has been given; time and again it has been left unheeded. Nay, even the grave disasters that repeatedly overtook China have not succeeded in awakening her from lethargy. The sad and humiliating spectacles that meet one at every turn, at the Legation Quarter of Peking where foreign troops are quartered, at the foreign settlements wherein China's sovereignty is overridden and are established "Republics within the Republic,"—these also have failed to impress upon China and make her bestir herself. President Yuan Shih Kai has himself confessed that "as soon as the trouble was over, we indulged in all kinds of pleasure, forgetting all the former humiliations." Unpleasant task as it is to narrate this sad story, it must be done to clarify the situation. In short, in spite of the wonderful stride China has made within recent years in various domains of civilization, she still lacks self-reliance, foresight, preparedness.

Under the circumstances, the utmost Japan can do is to adopt every legitimate means to safeguard her interest and forestall European encroachments upon her neighbor. Moreover, friendship engages Japan to proffer to China suggestions for her betterment. This must have been the inspiration back of the proposals made by Japan as to the employment of Japanese political, military, and financial advisors and the supply of arms and ammunition. They are, however, entirely different in character, as Baron Kato explained in his instructions to the Japanese Minister at Peking, from the demands that were pressed and accepted. The former class belongs to friendly proffers, and it was but just that they were expunged from the ultimatum and left for future discussion. Their ac-

ceptance by China depends altogether upon the value she places upon Japanese friendship and ability.

Once China sees the point, we can see no reason why she should refuse to employ more Japanese advisors and employees. Out of 3938 foreign employees in China there are at present 245 Japanese, while the remainder is made up of 1105 English, 1003 French, 533 Germans, 463 Russians, 174 Americans and others. Nor is there any reason why China would not heed the advice of her friend which aims for efficiency and uniformity of arms and ammunition, especially if the condition in China with regard to these weapons is such as to warrant the story told by Mr. Samuel Blythe in the *Saturday Evening Post* of July 17, that "there were no fuses for the artillery shells and the soldiers were armed with ten different makes of rifles." Still less is it easy to comprehend why Japan is not entitled to enjoy in China the same privilege of religious propagandism and of holding land and property for the purpose of education and charity, which Western nations have been enjoying for decades. Manifestly, it is now incumbent upon Japan to take every possible step to win the full confidence of China, and to convince her of Japan's sincerity in working for the good of China as well as for her own.

Among American critics Professor Jenks has rightly gauged Japan's position when he says, "it is hoped that the inspiration back of these demands is Japan's eager desire to do everything possible to help the Chinese to develop themselves, a help which Japan is fully capable of rendering." In the results of the recent Chino-Japanese negotiations, there is nothing to which the American people should justly object. Their rights and interests in China are not in the least invaded or abbreviated. The principle of China's integrity is re-enforced. The open door remains open, and the increased internal development of China which is to be expected will only tend toward the expansion of American trade. America surely entertains nothing but the most cordial, friendly feeling toward China and Japan. To see these Asiatic neighbors estranged, their relation marred by suspicion and calumny, would certainly be far from America's wish. Her large heart and best interests would rather dictate the policy of coöperation and mutual help among the three nations bordering on the Pacific.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

THE VITAL PROBLEM OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

SINCE it has been definitely announced that the national administration is seriously considering plans for greatly strengthening both army and navy, the expressed views on this subject of members of the Cabinet, and particularly of the heads of the War and Navy Departments, have unusual significance at this time. The opinions of Secretary Garrison, of the War Department, have been widely published, especially in the pages of the *New York Sun*.

Secretary Garrison argues pointedly that until self-defense is held to be wrong in law or morals we must hold that national defense is not only right, but imperative. Precaution, or preparation, against what may be expected is never to be counted as lost, nor can nations, any more than individuals, justify themselves for failing to take proper forethought by trusting to chance.

Secretary Garrison maintains that those who object to military precaution do so, not because they have any logical basis for such objection, but rather on account of a certain distrust that possesses them with respect to the use of military power. If the American people are failing to follow reason and to take military precaution because of a latent fear that such precaution might be misused, Secretary Garrison feels that as a nation we have much to answer for. Those who indulge such fears seem not to have considered the danger that other nations may misuse their strength against us. Our duty in the premises is to follow reason rather than fear, to look the facts squarely in the face, and adopt such measures as are demanded by ordinary prudence. In short, the Secretary sums up his view of the situation in his concluding paragraph:

That this duty of guarding, protecting and defending is of the very essence of government is a truism, and the real question before the American people is whether they purpose fulfilling this duty or neglecting it.

In concluding an article on "Reasonable Preparation" in the *Independent* for August 16, Secretary Garrison speaks with commendation of the student camps of military instruction that are maintained every summer. On the assumption that a trained force of from 400,000 to 500,000 citizen soldiers, in addition to our permanent regular and militia organizations, will be required as a guarantee against possible invasion, military instruction must be imparted to a relatively small number of our young men in order that such a force may be properly officered.

Secretary Daniels, of the Navy Department, also writing for the *Sun*, calls attention to the fact that, for the first time in many years, the General Board of the Navy, of which Admiral Dewey is chairman, has remained in Washington during the entire summer instead of going to Newport, where it usually holds its summer sessions. This year the Board has held daily sessions, even in the summer months, making a careful study to determine what has been learned from the great war that may be applied in the increase of the United States Navy which will be recommended by the President to Congress.

Secretary Daniels cannot, of course, make any public statement as to the program to be presented, but he comments briefly on the three matters to which naval experts are giving most of their attention: (1) It is generally agreed that in the new ships speed will be sacrificed to no other consideration. (2) As to submarines, the last Congress authorized the construction of twenty-six, three of which will be the first submersibles in the world designed to accompany the battle fleet on the high seas. One of these, the *Schley*, now building, is believed to be the largest submarine ever contracted for by any government. Our government has not heretofore built its own submarines, but now has one in

course of construction at the Portsmouth navy yard. Mr. Edison has received the government's order for batteries to go into submarines. (3) Our government is placing

orders for as many aeroplanes and hydroplanes as can be purchased in America, an aviation station and school having been established at Pensacola, Florida.

COLONEL ROOSEVELT ON PREPAREDNESS

THE views of ex-President Roosevelt on "Peace Insurance by Preparedness Against War" are set forth with characteristic directness in the August number of the *Metropolitan* magazine. It was to be expected that Colonel Roosevelt's well-known antipathy to peace-at-any-price advocates would find expression in anything that he might write on this subject. Not only does he feel it his duty to call upon his fellow countrymen to arm the nation as a measure of protection against war, but he protests most vigorously against the arbitration treaties negotiated under Mr. Bryan's leadership, and against what he calls "the policy of poltroonery" and the policy "of recklessly making promises which neither can nor ought to be kept." So far as the international peace movement is concerned Colonel Roosevelt declares that "even the proposal for a world peace of righteousness, based on force being put back of righteousness, is inopportune at this time."

Colonel Roosevelt further points out that the arbitration treaties in question were in principle repudiated by the very President who had negotiated them as soon as Mr. Bryan asked that the principle be concretely applied in the case of the *Lusitania*.

When we are prepared to make our words good and have shown that we make no promises which we are not both ready and willing to back up by our deeds, then, and not until then, we shall be able with dignity and effect to move for the establishment of a world agreement to secure the peace of justice. Such agreement must explicitly state that certain national rights are never to be arbitrated, because the nations are to be protected in their exercise; that other matters shall be arbitrated; and that the power of all the nations shall be used to prevent wrong being done by one nation at the expense of another. To put peace above righteousness is wicked. To chatter about it, without making ready to put strength behind it, is silly.

So much for the future. But for the immediate present Colonel Roosevelt believes that America has a two-fold duty to perform: "First, we must prepare ourselves against disaster by facing the fact that we

are nearly impotent in military matters, and by remedying this impotence. Second, we must seriously and in good faith and once for all abandon the wicked and foolish habit of treating words as all-sufficient of themselves and as wholly irrelevant to deeds; and as an incident thereto we must from now on refuse to make treaties which cannot be, and which will not be, lived up to in time of strain."

By way of showing what a figure this country would cut if overtaken by war in its usual condition of unpreparedness, Colonel Roosevelt harks back to the War of 1812, with which episode in our national history he is especially familiar through extended research, and reminds us how in 1814 a small British army landed in Chesapeake Bay, defeated twice its number of "free-born American citizens," and then burned the public buildings at Washington.

Colonel Roosevelt gives it as his opinion that had Washington, or men who carried out Washington's policy, been in charge of our government during the first fifteen years of the nineteenth century there would have probably been no war with Great Britain in 1812, or if there had been we would have been successful. But it was Thomas Jefferson, the opponent of Washington's ideals, who gave the tone to our governmental policies during that time. He and his followers declined to prepare a regular army and refused to upbuild a navy.

The very Congress that declared war on Great Britain declined to increase our Navy. Yet if at that time we had had an efficient navy of twenty battleships or an efficient mobile regular army of twenty thousand men, the war would not have taken place at all, or else it would have ended in complete and sweeping victory the summer it was declared. We trusted, however, to the "armed citizenry" of whom Mr. Wilson speaks and the voluntary efforts of "the million men who spring to arms between dawn and sunset," described in Mr. Bryan's oratory. We trusted to the few frigates prepared by the men of Washington's school before the Jeffersonians came to power. These frigates did their duty well, and but for them it is possible that our country would have broken in pieces under the intolerable shame of our failure on land. Nevertheless, our small cruisers could produce only a moral and not a

material effect upon the war. On land for two years we were unable to do anything effective at all. When the war had begun, it was too late to make efficient preparations; and in any event we did not try. We raised a body of over a hundred thousand militiamen under the volunteer system. These militiamen were gathered in camps where they sickened of various diseases; but we were never able to get them against the foe in any numbers, except on one or two occasions, such as at Bladensburg. Mind you, they were naturally good enough men. The individuals who ran at Bladensburg were the sons of the men of Yorktown, the fathers of the men of Gettysburg. What they needed was preparation.

At the beginning of our Civil War we had a similar experience. In 1861, says Colonel Roosevelt, both of the contending armies at Bull Run could have been beaten at ease by a European army of regulars half the size of either. Two years later there was not an army in Europe which could have contended on equal terms with either of the armies that fought at Gettysburg.

As a great living example of unpreparedness, of pacifism, of the peace-at-any-price spirit, Colonel Roosevelt cites China, where the English, the French, the Russian, and the Japanese control one-half of the territory, and the government is even threatened with the loss of control of the other half.

If our people really believed what the pacifists and the German-fearing politicians advocate, if they really feared war above anything else and really had sunk to the Chinese level,—from which the best and bravest and most honorable Chinamen are now striving to lift their people,—then it would be utterly hopeless to help the United States. In such case, the best thing that could befall it would be to have the Germans, or the Japanese, or some other people that still retains virility, come over here to rule and oppress a nation of feeble pacifists, unfit to be anything but hewers of wood and drawers of water for their masters.

Contrasting the situations at the present moment of Belgium and Switzerland, Colonel Roosevelt reminds us that before the war broke out Belgium, in many respects, stood strikingly near to the position occupied by the United States to-day. Belgium was an absolutely peaceful and prosperous country with a great industrial population. No adequate military preparation had been attempted because it was thought by those who determined her policy that she would never be attacked so long as she remained peaceful and committed no aggression.

Switzerland, on the other hand, also a peaceful country, had made full preparation, having a highly efficient army of 400,000 men. According to population, Belgium on

the same basis should have an army of 700,000, and in Colonel Roosevelt's opinion, if she had had such an army and acted just as Switzerland acted, Belgian territory would now be in Belgian hands. But the actual Belgian army was only about one-sixth the size of the Swiss, and while it fought valiantly, the heroism came too late to avail. Switzerland because of her preparedness remains at peace to-day, while Belgium has been subjugated.

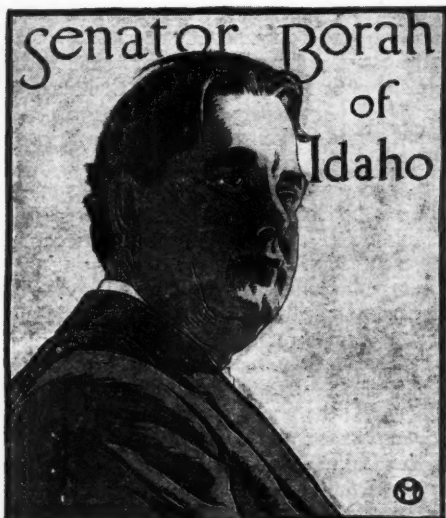
Colonel Roosevelt pays his respects to those statesmen represented by Senator Burton, of Ohio, who have consistently opposed the upbuilding of the navy and the fortification of the Panama Canal. While admitting that members of Congress who have followed such leadership may have the best of intentions, Colonel Roosevelt insists that their action has, nevertheless, represented an unworthy abandonment of national duty.

Perhaps the most interesting passage in Colonel Roosevelt's article is his discussion of the Philippine question. Since we have promised the Filipinos independence in terms understood to be independence in the immediate future, since our government of the Archipelago in recent years has been weak and vacillating, and on the further ground that our relative military inefficiency makes us less fitted than formerly to defend ourselves, Colonel Roosevelt advocates our leaving the Philippines at once, thus releasing ourselves from any obligation to defend them from other nations.

For the adequate protection of Alaska, Hawaii, our own coast, and the Panama Canal, our primary need is for a first-class navy, in addition to adequate land fortifications. If we have to interfere in Mexico such action would mean only a measure of self-defense and should be undertaken only by the regular army as a work of police and pacification. Our regular army, therefore, should consist of 200,000 men, giving a mobile army of 150,000. There would be no need of volunteers to police Mexico.

Besides a first-class navy and a regular army of 200,000 men, we should have a system of universal military service, perhaps on the Swiss model. Since all citizens of this republic benefit by its existence, none of them should be permitted to shirk the performance of duty necessary to the republic's welfare or life. "We should not permit brave men voluntarily to lay down their lives in order that weak, timid, or foolish men may live in peace and comfort. But until there is universal military service that is what brave and patriotic men must do."

TWO POSSIBLE CANDIDATES FOR THE PRESIDENCY



From *Collier's* Cover.

IN the series of "Presidential Possibilities" in *Collier's* (New York), United States Senator William Edgar Borah, of Idaho, is the subject of a character-sketch by C. P. Connolly. Senator Borah is fifty years of age, a native of Wayne County, Illinois, of German descent (the name originally was De Borah). At the Kansas State University young Borah was a classmate of William Allen White, and after completing his course was admitted to the bar and started for the West. His objective point was Seattle, but as his cash did not hold out he stopped at Boise, Idaho, and on a capital of \$15.75 opened a law office. Borah advanced rapidly in the practise of his profession, after the manner of young lawyers in the West in those days, and in due time reached political preferment. The most famous law case with which he was connected was the prosecution of Haywood, of the Western Federation of Miners, for the murder of Governor Steunenberg.

Borah's progressivism in politics came to the surface when he began to advocate a primary law in his State fourteen years before it was finally adopted. When he first ran for the Senate, says Mr. Connolly, there were four other candidates in the field. Borah had 18 votes on the first ballot, and the other candidates together had 24. Borah was defeated by the others combining. "He told the Legislature then that was the end

of the caucus system in Idaho; that the next fight he made for the United States Senate would be made from the crossroads up; that he would go before the people direct, whether Idaho had a primary law or not."

Four years later, however, in 1906, Borah was nominated for Senator by the Republican State Convention, delegates pledged to his candidacy having been named by the local conventions. He received the unanimous vote of the Republicans in the Legislature and was elected. At Washington he began at once to advocate the constitutional amendment providing for the election of Senators by popular vote and had charge of that resolution when it was passed by the Senate.

Senator Borah's course during his first years at Washington was somewhat of a surprise to the Republican powers. Having known of his activities in prosecuting labor leaders in the West, they made him chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor, not knowing that he was really in sympathy with the cause of labor, although opposed to violence. As a result of his Senate chairmanship, the eight-hour bill for government contracts, the child-labor bill, and the bill creating the Department of Commerce and Labor, were reported out of the committee and passed. Senator Borah led the fight in the Senate for an investigation of conditions in West Virginia, where military courts-martial were imprisoning miners and depriving them of the right of trial by jury. He even advocated an income-tax as an amendment to the Payne-Aldrich tariff bill. But he does not believe in the attempt at regulation of big business. "I don't think you can any more regulate a monopoly with safety than you can regulate a cancer in the human system," he says; "the only remedy is to cut it out."

As a progressive Republican, Senator Borah upheld Colonel Roosevelt's contest before the Republican National Committee in 1912, but refused to leave the party. He declared that under no circumstances would he bolt the nomination and that he believed that more could be done within the party than by a split. After the convention, when asked if he thought Mr. Taft was honestly or honorably nominated for President at the Chicago Convention, Senator Borah replied: "I think 78 delegates were seated for Taft that any fair tribunal would have given to

Roosevelt, and 52 delegates were seated for Taft than no honest tribunal could have denied Roosevelt."

As for himself, Senator Borah declared that he was still a Republican as he understood Republican, and that he was a progressive, but that he wished to fight inside Republican lines. Thus Mr. Connolly rightly characterizes Mr. Borah as progressive,—but not Progressive.

Former Senator Burton, of Ohio

Another Republican who is looked upon as a Presidential possibility from *Collier's* standpoint is former Senator Theodore E. Burton, of Ohio, who, on his retirement from the Senate on the fourth of last March, had completed nineteen years of almost continuous service in the national Congress. Moreover, those who read Mr. Fred C. Kelly's interesting sketch of Senator Burton's career in *Collier's* for August 21 will quite easily and naturally arrive at the conclusion that those nineteen years were not years of reckless joy in the mundane sense of the word, for Mr. Kelly shows beyond peradventure that of all men in American public life Mr. Burton is entitled to be designated as a scholar and a tireless worker.

A graduate of Oberlin College in the class of 1872, Burton gave two years to preparation for becoming a minister of the gospel, but at the end of that time decided that while he could probably preach reasonably good sermons he would never make a successful pastor, and in this conclusion most of his associates in later life would probably concur. Having given up the ministry as a life work, Burton went to Chicago to study law in the office of Lyman Trumbull, where William J. Bryan studied in later years, returned to Ohio, was admitted to the bar and began practise in Cleveland. During his first year his earnings amounted to about \$3000, and he continued to make money as long as he remained in practise. He became a member of the Cleveland City Council in 1886 along with Myron T. Herrick, later Governor of Ohio and Ambassador to France. In 1888 Burton was elected to his first term in Congress from the old Twenty-first District. Two years later he was defeated for Congress by a Democrat, Tom L. Johnson, whom Burton defeated twice in the race for the same congressional seat,—the last time in 1894.

For ten years Burton served as chairman of the House Committee on Rivers and Har-



From *Collier's* Cover.

bors. He made the scientific improvement of rivers and harbors his life study, and soon rose to a position of real leadership. Mr. Kelly points out also that Burton was one of the first congressmen to declare himself a legislator working for the United States and not alone for the district that elected him.

Several times he turned down proposed river or harbor improvements right in his own district,—even when a majority of the committee would have favored them,—simply because he believed that, considered broadly,—that is, from the point of view of the whole country, rather than of the immediate locality,—the improvement would not be a wise expenditure of money.

Not alone in the matter of waterway improvements has Theodore Burton been a leader in Congress in opposition to wastefulness in public expenditures. He has conducted one or two noteworthy filibusters in the Senate against flagrant extravagance in public-building bills. Early in his Congressional career he made a fight against the House leaders in opposition to various items in the Indian appropriation bill that carried with them vast wastefulness. He has become more or less of a specialist in fighting all manner of errors and abuses in appropriations. And his fights have been extremely advantageous to the taxpaying public.

After he went from the House to the Senate, Burton continued to make a specialty of public expenditures and to conduct filibusters against measures that seemed to him extravagant. On one of these occasions he spoke almost continuously for twenty hours. Although nearly sixty-four years of age, Mr. Burton is described as wonderfully preserved and his good physical condition is ascribed to his simple manner of living.

HOW THE BELGIANS ARE FED

SINCE the seventh day of November, 1914, the largest commissary work of history has been handled successfully by the Commission for Relief in Belgium. An article issued as a supplement to the *New Republic* (New York) of July 31, written by Mabel Hyde Kittredge and entitled "Taking Care of Belgium," describes graphically the methods employed in distributing food and clothing to seven million people.

The editors of the *New Republic* call attention to the clean and direct spirit which has characterized the work of this Commission, under the leadership of such men as Mr. Hoover, Mr. Landon Bates, and Mr. Brand Whitlock:

It is not good-will which distinguishes this Commission. There has been plenty of that all through history. It is the fact that scientific organization has been made the servant of good-will. The significance of that is like a kindly light on the battlefields of Europe. We have admired the organization of war, its supreme technical efficiency. Here is an organization created out of nothing over night by democrats, and its efficiency yields no point to the best disciplined institutions of the world. The larger message of the Belgian Relief Commission is that democracies have within them resources of ability which in our despondency we have attributed to autocracies alone. There is hope for freedom when such capacity is at its disposal.

While the full history of the relief work cannot be written, the author notes, until after the war is over because the workers are too busy at present to write down the story of their work, there is much that can be told that is of deep interest.

The Belgian Relief Commission feeds seven million people with foodstuffs drawn from collection centers from three to eight thousand miles distant from the point of distribution. This work has enlisted over a hundred thousand volunteer laborers, including many able men of the financial world; five governments are concerned in the matter and nearly every country has made some contribution to the work.

On October 26, Brand Whitlock, the American Minister to Belgium, reported that nearly seven millions of the inhabitants of Belgium would starve unless relief was quickly obtained. At the same time Mr. Herbert C. Hoover sent out a call for help, and King Albert asked America to assist in feeding his starving people.

On November 1 the first consignment of food from America arrived in Rotterdam, and by No-

vember 7 four hundred thousand meals a day were being issued in Brussels alone, at the price of a penny a meal, and by the twenty-second the daily number was half as much again. Almost at once was created the perfect organization that we see now operating in America, England, Holland and Belgium.

The part Spain has taken in the work of the distribution of food is not generally known in this country. The Spanish Minister has worked with the American Minister, and they have been assisted by the Belgian Comité National de Secours d'Alimentation. Every country of the world has sent aid, but the Comité National has undertaken the labor of the actual distribution of the supplies.

Every ship bearing relief-commission cargoes, as well as every freight car, carries a large square of white cloth bearing the words "The Commission for Relief in Belgium." There are between 140 and 150 of these ships. These are allowed by the British, French, and German admiralities safe conduct to Rotterdam from various ports in the United States, as well as other countries.

The arrival of one of the Commission's relief ships at Falmouth is telegraphed to the Rotterdam office of the Commission, and when the ship reaches Dover she takes on a pilot who conducts her safely to Flushing and thence to Rotterdam. At the frontier the Dutch seal is removed and a seal of the Commission for Relief in Belgium substituted. All ships unload at Rotterdam. The arrival of a ship having been announced, floating elevators are sent along either side the moment she has dropped anchor in the lower port. Outside of these floating elevators are three hundred lighters or barges. These barges are to carry the wheat or foodstuffs by canal to their destinations in Belgium. An accurate account is kept of each barge, or car,—a few freight cars are used in the eastern part,—as it passes the various stations. The speed with which this work is done is ahead of all records. A nine-thousand-ton ship loaded with wheat can be emptied in thirty-six hours on three hundred barges, which are immediately towed by tugs through the canals into Belgium. The Dutch Government furnishes all facilities for unloading these ships. Holland even at one time loaned the Commission ten thousand tons of food, when the immediate need of food was imminent and it could not be sent from America in time.

The difficulties of carrying on this work are multiplied by the absence of telephone and telegraph communications and by the fact that all railroad routes are held by the military forces. Therefore the canals are the only means of distributing the food supplies, and many of these have been blocked or destroyed for reasons of war. The main food depot at Rotterdam ships stores to one

hundred and twenty principal warehouses where it is reshipped into 32,000 communal centers.

The main purchasing fund, the greatest and the sacredest of all the donations, comes from the Belgians themselves. Into this treasury has been put all that the enveloped Belgian race could gather of the remnants of their shattered fortunes. It registers their struggle for survival. Although the Commission purchases food from funds sent from all over the world, it looks upon this trust fund from the Belgians as the foundation of its work.

One of the problems that has been solved by means of the Commission's perfect organization is the grinding and turning into wholesome bread the quantities of wheat sent to Belgium.

When the wheat reaches its destination in Belgium it is delivered by employees of the Commission from the barges to mills. Most scrupulous care is taken not only that every pound of wheat sent from Rotterdam shall reach its destination, but that when wheat is turned into the mill from the barge the miller shall render account of an equivalent quantity of flour, allowing 7 per cent. for bran. This bran is the miller's pay for grinding the wheat. He is also allowed twenty-five cents for every 225 pounds of wheat. In each province there are from six to ten of these large mills, grinding only the Commission's flour. The lowliest man in Belgium is more anxious than any German, English or American to play his part well. To arouse distrust in this complicated business might mean that he and his family again must face starvation.

The woman in America who buys her six or seven loaves of bread a day has no idea of the tremendous business of the breadmaking industry in Belgium. In the first place the very action of buying thousands of tons of wheat affects the market price so acutely that it reaches every man and woman in the civilized world. It is not an easy thing to buy the wheat to make bread for seven millions of people. If the business end of it is not properly attended to it will lead to terrible disaster; it must be gone about very cautiously, and by men who possess a hard-won knowledge of the temper of one of the most capricious markets of the world. After the wheat reaches Belgium and is ground, the flour is sold to the bakers of the various districts; but each baker is allowed to bake only the amount indicated and desired by the communal officer of his district.

THE BREAD LINE IN BELGIUM

On February 10 it was estimated that if those waiting in line for soup stood single file the line would be six hundred miles long. Besides bread, soup is now the principal article of diet in Belgium. In Brussels it is prepared in great central kitchens and sent out to twenty-six distributing stations. The schools and municipal buildings, Miss Kittedge states, are used as soup-kitchens.

Work in the kitchens begins at 2 A. M., and at that hour the gas-fitters light the fires under the boilers, which are filled with water by means of a hose. Two sets of cooks and carvers arrive at this same early hour. Every receipt for soup has been carefully worked out by the best trained dietitian; even the best way to peel potatoes was studied scientifically. There is a head cook who directs and distributes foodstuffs to the soup-makers. These soupmakers are the best chefs from the hotels; each is responsible for an allotted number of boilers.

At seven in the morning the first boilers of soup are ready, and the work of filling the distributing cans begins. Immediately over the same fires the second boilers are prepared. It costs \$700 to make one day's soup in one kitchen, and it takes thirty-two cooks and thirty-two assistant cooks, besides the women who prepare vegetables.

Each person standing in line at the distributing station brings a pitcher, a saucepan, an old coffee-pot,—any receptacle that can be used to carry the soup away. Unlike most bread lines, it reveals no look of shame on the faces of the men and women.

A special department looks after the needs of children under three years of age.

Each child is examined by a communal doctor and receives one of five kinds of tickets, depending on the age and the health of the child. The portions are mostly milk, cocoa, or a nourishing, easily digested soup. At the very first the Commission gathered into the dairies all the cows it could secure. These cows are fed with corn from the Argentine and bran from American wheat, which has been milled in Belgian mills. As their milk is not sufficient, condensed milk is used as well.

THE REVIVAL OF THE LACE INDUSTRY

The lace-making industry has been revived and the new Belgian lace is collected by the Commission and sold in England and America. In all the pieces of lace woven since last autumn, the initials "C. R. B." (Commission for Relief in Belgium) are interwoven with fine lace thread.

Much of the lace held by noble Belgian families as heirlooms has been sold to employ labor. Many persons are set at work making clothing and fashionable residences have been turned into clothing shops. The garments made by this labor are sent all over Belgium, to be sold to those who have money and given away to those who have none.

HOW CAN WE HELP BELGIUM?

Beyond giving freely of our means to the Relief Commission, we can help by staying away from Belgium and making others stay away.

It is a new game they are playing; the rules are strange and hard to learn. Those who come to look on or to help for a little while inevitably do one of two things: they get in trouble them-

do one of two things: they get in trouble themselves, and someone has to stop his work to help them out, or they get the Commission into trouble. It takes months, not weeks, to learn what neutrality means in Belgium.

As the editors of the *New Republic* note in their foreword to this excellent article, the Commission of Relief has done an incomparable work, not only in feeding the hungry,

and thereby saving physical life, but in the saving of the national life of the Belgian nation, by the "turning of the thoughts of the Belgian leaders from empty hopelessness to the organization of their people." It has been a struggle of the efficiency of the constructive forces of humanity pitted against the terror that confronts the world to-day,—the efficiency of the forces of destruction.

THE CASE FOR THE MUNITIONS TRADE



IN THE LIGHT OF CONSISTENCY
From the *Daily Ledger* (Tacoma, Wash.)

IN view of Austria's recent protest against the shipment of munitions of war by private manufacturers in the United States to the Allies, the compact statement of the rights of Americans under international law, by Professor Theodore S. Woolsey, in *Leslie's Weekly* for July 29, is timely. Professor Woolsey is everywhere recognized as one of the leading authorities on international law. He finds justification for those American manufacturers who are supplying European powers with munitions of war in Article 7, Convention 13, of the 1907 Conference at The Hague:

"A neutral power is not bound to prevent the export or transit, for the use of either belligerent, of arms, ammunitions or, in general, of anything which could be of use to an army or fleet."

Professor Woolsey points out that the article preceding this had prohibited a government from itself engaging in this trade, so that the distinction between what the state and the individual may do is made per-

fectly clear, provided both belligerents are treated alike. To permit trade in arms with one belligerent and forbid it with another would be unneutral and illegal.

Professor Woolsey next discusses the question whether the fact that, owing to the chances of war, the right to buy munitions inures to the advantage of one belligerent only, makes our conduct unneutral. He decides that exactly the contrary is true:

To embargo munitions bought by one side because the other side does not choose to buy would be the unneutral act. Germany does not buy, because she cannot transport. She cannot transport because she does not care to contest the control of the sea, with her enemies. Have we ought to do with that? To supplement her naval inferiority by denying to the Allies the fruits of their superiority would be equivalent to sharing in the war on the German side. Moreover to assume and base action upon German naval inferiority in advance of any general trial of strength would be not only illegal but even an insult to Germany.

The German Ambassador, it is true, has called our export of munitions unneutral conduct, but the government at Berlin has made no complaint and cannot consistently make such complaint. Germany has not cared to risk her fleet by contesting the control of the seas, and so has lost her share of the munitions trade. But that is her affair and she must accept the result.

Opposition to the trade seems to come from two classes of individuals: "(1) German sympathizers who seek to minimize the advantage the sea-power gives the Allies, and (2) Those who are governed by their emotions rather than by reason and respect for law." In this connection Professor Woolsey calls the attention of both these classes to the usage in former wars,—for example, the large German exports of arms to the British forces in the Boer War after

the war trade had been cut off, the Krupps' activity during the Russo-Japanese War in supplying both sides. Reference is also made to the fact although England sympathized with the South in our Civil War, she sold to the North, and in 1870 she sold to France.

In our own country the munitions trade cannot be forbidden without explicit legislation. At the outset of the Spanish War the export of coal or other war material was forbidden as a war measure at the discretion of the President, but Congress in 1912 amended the 1898 resolution so as to make it apply to American countries only. It was thought desirable to limit the danger of exports of arms to our neighbor states, par-

ticularly to Mexico, by which our own peace and safety might be endangered. The general right to trade was left undisturbed.

Arguing the question on ethical grounds alone, Professor Woolsey can see no difference between a peace trade and a war trade from the humanitarian standpoint; between arming a neighbor by our exports in preparation for war and re-arming him during war. If one regards all wars wrong, aid in waging war by trade in munitions, whether in peace time or war time, should be abhorrent to one's conscience. So far as the present war is concerned we have to take the word of each party that it is fighting in self-defense. We owe both parties, ethically, simply equality of treatment.

INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC RELATIONS AFTER THE WAR

ONE of the greatest boasts of twentieth-century civilization until that portentous date, August 1, 1914, was the harmony and amity with which men of science all over the world had built up a system of mutual intercommunication and assistance, valuable not only to themselves, but to all humanity.

There has been no more painful feature of the great conflict than the shattering of this wonderful system, and the substitution of discord and acrid recrimination among men avowedly devoted solely to the service of the great white goddess, Truth. We earnestly believe, however, that the intellectual and spiritual bonds thus cruelly ruptured will heal even more rapidly than political dissensions. Nevertheless, there will remain, doubtless, a number of irreconcilables among men of letters and science on each side, and particular tact in dealing with these must be exercised by the men of broader vision who are even now attempting some sort of reorganization of the united intellectual life of the world. Such reorganization and reconciliation may very probably be attempted by Sweden, since this is not only a neutral country, but is already a central clearing-house for intellectual achievement, as it were, because of the presence in Stockholm of the Board of Directors of the Nobel Prize Fund. A well-known Swedish journal, in fact, the *Svenska Dagbladet*, recently opened its columns to a discussion of the steps to be taken after the war for the resumption of international scientific relations. That this resumption will

be attended with difficulties is only too clear from a reply to the proposition published in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris) of July 3. This is from the pen of M. Paul Sabatier, not only a distinguished member of the *Institut*, but himself a recent recipient of one of the Nobel prizes. He writes:

It is evident that the terrible war under which Europe is suffering has irremediably disturbed the relations between savants of hostile countries. It might perhaps have been hoped that the realm of science would have remained the inviolate tower of ivory, inaccessible to exterior tempests. But the wind of violent passions unchained by the war has from the beginning swept away that dream.

Many French savants have had relations of cordiality and even of friendship with their German colleagues, and to read the names of these at the bottom of the "Manifesto of the Ninety-three Intellectuals" was for the former a sorrowful surprise. It would seem impossible that these relations should ever be resumed, and similar ones could be re-knotted only between future generations of intellectuals born to science after the present torment.

Between the German savants and ourselves there will always rise the burning of the University of Louvain, the ruin of the Halls of Ypres, the bombardment of the cathedrals of Rheims and Soissons, the firing upon and the innumerable tortures of women, children, priests, and a barrier which is perhaps even more immovable, the special pleading of Germanic Kultur and its hegemonic ambitions. It is evident that the ditch already dug will never be filled in, and that on the contrary it can only be deepened by the rancors which defeat will provoke in the bosoms of the vanquished.

In spite of the strict neutrality which the Swedish nation has preserved in the conflict the world

rôle which the allotment of the Nobel prize fund has given to Sweden will become very difficult to exercise,—so much the more since the greater part of the advices which they must demand from the representatives of European science cannot be regarded as being furnished impartially.

Time will be the only workman capable of the labor of pacification or of producing future union

in the domain of science: reunions in the form of congresses will certainly be futile. But just as flowers and moss will at last reconquer the fields ruined by battle, so will there be a reflowering of European science in all its brilliance, if, as is our profound hope, the sorrows and sacrifices of the present hour are but a prelude to the disappearance of militarism and organized barbarism.

THE NATIONAL SONG OF ITALY

EVERYONE is familiar with the stirring words and inspiring melody of the "Marseillaise," and the words and music of the "Watch on the Rhine" are likewise widely known, but there are few people in this country, probably, outside those of Italian origin, who know anything about the "Hymn of Mameli," as the Italian national song is called from the name of the gallant lad who composed it only two years before he died, at the early age of twenty-two, from the effects of a wound received in battle.

Goffredo Mameli, the author, as we learn from the July number of *Larousse Mensuel* (Paris), was the son of Rear-Admiral Giorgio Mameli of the Italian navy, and was born at Genoa in 1827. In 1847 Lombardy and Venice undertook to throw off the irksome Austrian yoke. Young Mameli, who had evinced an ardent patriotism ever since his adolescence, was among the first to take arms in the struggle against the army of Radetski, giving a good account of himself in various battles and later becoming a follower of Garibaldi in the insurrections of that epoch. He was wounded in the leg during the defense of Rome on June 3, 1849, amputation was found necessary on June 19, and on July 6, three days after the fall of the Roman republic, the youthful poet and soldier laid down his life.

His hymn, animated with the pure ardor of the patriot and the warrior, was at first the song of the volunteers from the plains of Lombardy, then that of the Garibaldians; it then bore the title of *Fratelli d'Italia* (Brothers of Italy). It was not destined to be forgotten. A year after the death of the poet his works were edited at Genoa with a moving preface written by the patriot, Mazzini. Henceforth the poems of Goffredo Mameli, and notably *Fratelli d'Italia*, now called the Hymn of Mameli, were learned by heart by the school-children.

The music to which the glowing and ardent words of the poem were set was written by a compatriot of the young poet only five years his senior. This composer, Michele Novaro, was likewise born at Genoa. He lived until 1885 and his graceful and roman-

tic melodies were well known and much esteemed.

The various couplets of the Hymn of Mameli make a direct appeal to Italian patriotism by their references to glorious and memorable events in the history of the nation.

They refer to Scipio, the conqueror of Hannibal; to Legnano, the name of a victory of the Milanese over the troops of Frederic Barbarossa in 1176; to Feruccio, a celebrated *condottiere*, who played a great rôle in the sixteenth century in the revolt of Italy against the House of Austria; and to Balila, a young boy of Genoa, who in the course of these same insurrections in the sixteenth century gave the signal for revolt by throwing a stone in the face of the commandant of the Imperial troops, instantly paying with his life for his heroic act.

We quote one stanza and the refrain of this spirited battle-hymn, with a literal translation of the words:

Allo Marziale.

"*Fratelli d'Italia, L'Italia s'è desta,
Dell' elmo di Scipio S'è cinta la testa.
Dov'è la vittoria? Le porga la chioma,
Chè sciava di Roma, Iddio la credè.*"

Refrain:

Allo Mosso.

"*Fratelli d'Italia, L'Italia s'è desta,
Dell' elmo di Scipio S'è cinta la testa.
Dov'è la vittoria? Le porga la chioma,
Chè sciava di Roma, Iddio la credè,
Stringiamci a coorte, Siam pronti alla morte,
Siam pronti alla morte, L'Italia chiamò,
Stringiamci a coorte, Siam pronti alla morte,
Siam pronti alla morte, L'Italia chiamò! Sì!"*

Even persons unfamiliar with Italian cannot fail to be impressed by the ringing melody of these lines, and the forcefulness imparted by the skilful use of repetition and inversion. A literal translation is as follows:

"Brothers of Italy, Italy is aroused,
With the helmet of Scipio she binds her brows.
Where hideth Victory? Let her bare her head,
For the slave of Rome, God hath created her.

Repeat:

Form now the cohorts! We are ready to die!
We are ready to die! For Italia calls us!
Form now the cohorts! We are ready to die!
We are ready to die! For Italia calls us!

Yes!"



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LIVING IN CELLARS IN SOISSONS, FRANCE

(The heavy and continued bombardment of Soissons made it necessary for the people of that war-ravaged spot to live underground)

FRENCH EFFICIENCY IN WAR

THE preëminence of Germany's political and social organization is generally assumed by her friends and enemies alike. It has been taken for granted ever since the war began that no other power would be able to apply itself so thoroughly to the work in hand and hence that no other power could contest with Germany for supremacy.

Professor Franklin H. Giddings, of Columbia University, who has been for many years a profound student of civilization, challenges this assumption. In the *New York American* for August 1 he declares that France, in proportion to her population and her wealth, has shown herself to be, all in all, a better working machine than Germany, and he takes as his standard of efficiency in society the same standard that is almost universally recognized by Germany's admirers,—that is, the amount of work done in proportion to the mass of appliances, or, in other words, "a good engine which, in proportion to its weight and its bulk, develops more horse-power than an engine bigger and heavier." Of the achievements of

France since the outbreak of the war Professor Giddings says in the course of his article:

There have been an elegance, a precision, an economy in all her efforts that have called forth the admiration of onlookers, as the artistic excellence of her manufactures, her books, her plays, her modes, has called it forth in the years of peace. And these results France has achieved through the spontaneous coöperation of the individual with society, and of both individual and society with the government, which has no perfect parallel elsewhere. France has, in fact, practically solved, in a high degree, the problem of obtaining from democracy the working efficiency that Germany obtains by authority.

Why, then, may not this be the way out for every nation? Why speak of this plan as a possibility only, and take for granted an impending struggle between classes and masses? Why, at all events, should not England and the United States study French methods and emulate French achievements rather than give themselves over in the name of efficiency to a business feudalism, if that plan can win out, or to a democratic socialism if it can win out?

The answer is short and simple. The French scheme of social organization and functioning calls for intellect—intellect everywhere; not only in the Academy, in the university, in the labora-

tory, but also in the Senate Chamber, in the Chamber of Deputies, in the business office, in the labor syndicate, in the shop, on the farm. And it calls for it in a certain peculiar way which Americans generally do not understand. It calls for intellect as something admired, honored, socially recognized, as something which offers to the humblest citizen both opportunity and distinction. In France the admiration of intellect is universal. America has intellect abundantly, but America does not as yet admire,

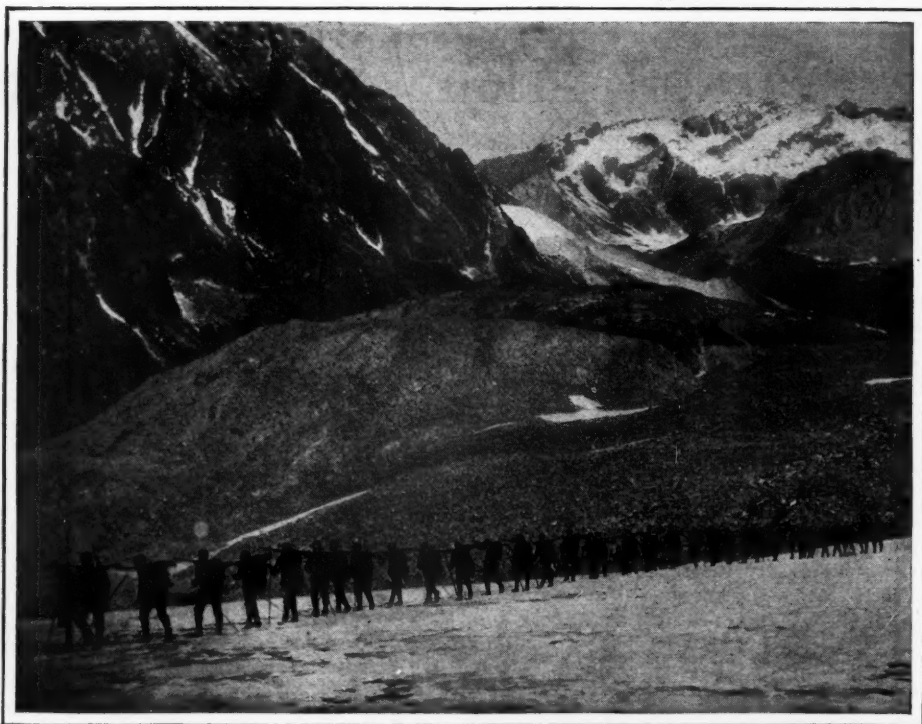
and honor intellect in the French way. Beyond all things else, America admires business success, and, next to that, political adroitness. These admirations make directly for a business control or a political control of the entire social fabric. The French socialized state is not workable by a population in which adroitness and success are supremely admired. They are workable only by a population in which the rewards of admiration and respect go spontaneously to intellect as such.

THE SWISS MILITARY SYSTEM

IN all the recent discussions of American preparedness there have been frequent references to the Swiss method of training soldiers. A former lieutenant of infantry in the Swiss Army, Frederick Arnold Kuenzli, writing in the *New York Times*, states that 70 per cent. of the Swiss that enter the military service are already physically well-trained men and competent marksmen. This is largely due to the influence of the great educator Pestalozzi, who showed the need and the feasibility of physical exercises corresponding to the physiological and natural development of the boy. Thus a

system of physical training has been developed as a part of the ordinary school education. But it was found that the exercises contained in the military drill regulations of the Swiss Army provided the best form of needed physical exercises for boys, and, at the same time, promoted the required discipline. Therefore, the whole physical training of the Swiss boy in school, beginning at his tenth year, has, as a basis, the "Infantry Drill of the Army," edited by the Swiss War Department.

So thorough and uniform a drill continued for six years, followed by instruction in



SWISS MOUNTAIN INFANTRY MARCHING IN SINGLE FILE

cadet corps and preparatory courses, makes a promising soldier out of the average youth. When he enters service as a recruit he is already acquainted with the work that has to be done and executes the familiar commands almost automatically.

In the cadet corps physical training obtained in the school is supplemented by training in marching and shooting. The cadet wears the uniform and has a miniature model

of the regulation rifle. He goes through the same instruction in rifle practise as the soldier.

In civil life every Swiss soldier is compelled to be a member of a rifle club, and to undergo a yearly shooting rifle test consisting of 36 shots, with a minimum of 75 per cent. hits and 60 per cent. points. Every village and town in Switzerland has a field range for rifle practise.

"THE HOME SIDE OF WAR-TIME"

AN extraordinary leveling-up and leveling-down process,—the establishment of a certain equilibrium between classes,—has been going on in England since the outbreak of the war, chiefly owing to the extended relief work of the various charitable organizations,—in particular the Soldiers' and Sailors' Families' Association. The work of this organization was originally devoted to the "needs of women related to soldiers actually serving with their respective regiments or reservists who had been called up and were unable to make adequate provision for their families beforehand."

After August, 1914, the enlistment of large numbers of men throughout the British Isles necessitated the formation of many branches and sub-divisions of this Association on account of the tremendous increase in the duties to be performed. The funds at the disposal of the Association were found to be entirely inadequate, and the Prince of Wales National Relief Fund gave over one million pounds sterling to this charity. An article by Helen Anstey, entitled "The Home Side of War-Time," published in the *Contemporary Review* (London) for August, gives the reader an excellent idea of the practical side of the relief work in the East End of London.

It will be readily understood that, with few exceptions, the homes referred to are those of recruits, men who have joined Kitchener's Army, not reservists. The visitors, on arrival at the office about 10 A. M., goes over her cases for the day. These being arranged and the War Office forms filled up, she sallies forth on her round.

Her first case is in a typical East End street:

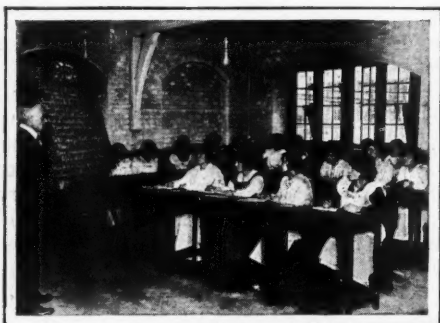
A feckless young Irish mother with a pretty face and attractive brogue,—in spite of dirt and unkempt hair,—tells one that her husband has been sentenced to some months' imprisonment for striking his corporal; consequently her pay has

been stopped. What is she to do? She has nothing whatever to go on with, and the children must be fed and the rent paid. All the facts are carefully noted, some in pencil, but more mentally; and the promise that her case shall come before the Committee that afternoon, and that someone will come and see her again tomorrow, puts new heart into this almost demented woman, whose husband was in decent work before he enlisted.

Any tendency to criticize these unfortunate sufferers from the conditions of war is condemned. The visitor must not preach, but rather endeavor to be helpful and sympathetic. It is found that the women who receive the donations from the Association fund are amenable to all suggestions regarding domestic matters save one,—that of cookery. They will not go to a cooking class, the author writes, as on this point the working-class Englishwoman is most difficult and self-opinionated.

In regard to the suffering of the middle-class Englishwomen, Mrs. Anstey writes:

It is frequently averred that the middle class is the one which suffers the most keenly and silently during any great national crisis, whether it be in the matter of strikes, depression in trade, or other causes. There are thousands of homes brought to the verge of despair without any special outlet for sympathy or relief. The burden of trying to make ends meet on a vastly reduced income added to the anxiety for those whose places are vacant,—having to take the children away from good private schools and send them to the nearest Board School, and similar economies,—creates a problem never met with before in the history of British warfare. Hundreds of cases might be given where men have been earning £250 to £400 a year, whose wives find themselves reduced to a mere subsistence. Many of these women have not known of the S. S. F. A. until rent-day came around, and they had to confess that it was impossible to meet it. Invariably the agent suggests an application to the Association, with the assurance that it will be met with every kindness and sympathy. In such cases a certain amount is allowed for arrears, and a similar proportion added to the



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

LONDON. GIRLS ARE BEING TAUGHT THE GROCERS' TRADE

(A lecture room where the girls are being instructed along these lines)

allowance in the future for rent. The greatest tact and courtesy are shown, and every applicant is made to feel at ease; her affairs are kept strictly private, and a friendly feeling is established which frequently leads to something being done for the children, or if sickness occurs, sending a nurse to attend the invalid.

Many other charitable organizations and clubs have linked up their work with that of the S. S. F. A. At some of the clubs a "Talk on the War" is given once a week in order to teach the working-class women what it all means. In many cases they have been too ignorant to "see what difference it would make if the Germans did come and rule England. These women have always been so miserably poor that they did not suppose conditions would be any worse with the Germans than without them."

It is amazing how ready they are to receive interesting information about the world beyond their very limited range of knowledge, and, rightly used, the present crisis affords an excellent opportunity for educating them in true patriotism and loyalty to their country. . . . With but few exceptions, however, this work has a marvelous leveling-up and leveling-down process about it. As it is not philanthropic, there is no room for patronage; the one great link is "the man at the Front" fighting, coming home wounded, or, too often, dying for his country,—and the burden of many a heart finds its greatest relief in sharing that sorrow with others.

How Englishwomen Are "Saving the Land"

Alice Martineau writes in *The Englishwoman* (London) that perhaps the only blessing that has been bestowed by the stern necessity of war is the giving to woman her rightful share of the world's work. Now that there are not enough men in England to do the necessary work, women have been

given the opportunity that was denied them previous to the war, and they are proving to the Englishmen, that Englishwomen are able to shoulder the work of a nation with entire efficiency. The author writes that working women are wanted in thousands throughout England, particularly in the country districts. She gives her own establishment as an example of the many estates that are stripped of their working men by the call of the army.

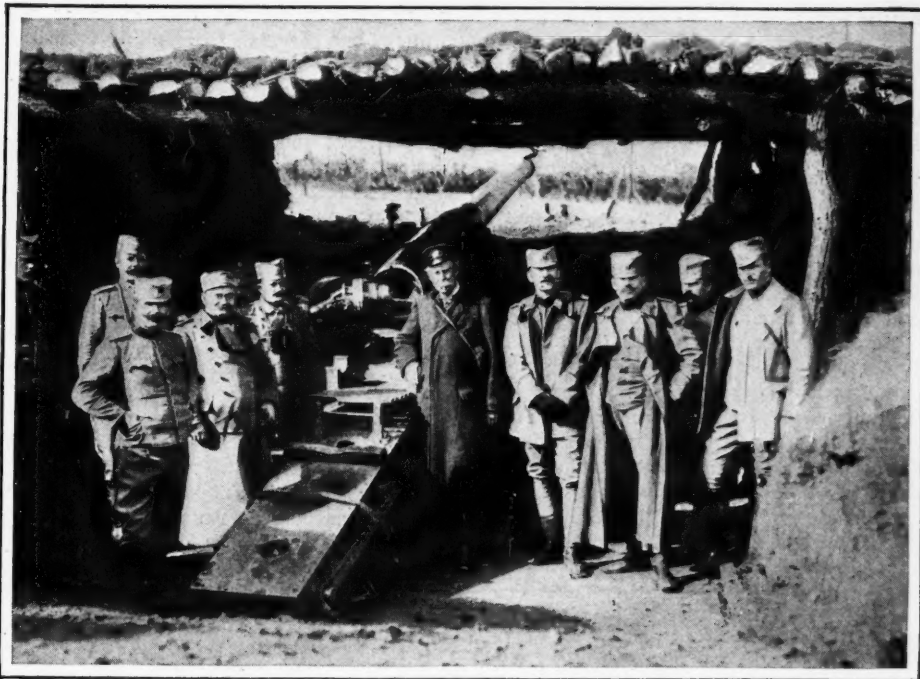
In this small village over one hundred and twenty men are serving. My last men go this week, and a woman left behind in one of the villages has three days in which to learn to milk, feed, make butter and take her husband's place. . . . Here, where six men are kept normally, I find myself with two boys, one sixteen and one thirteen. Left first with no head gardener, I undertook that duty myself, without difficulty, as I have made gardening my profession the last few years. The chauffeur went, so I learned to drive the car, and it is washed by the small boy (who loves it). Gradually, they (the men) have all gone, and their places are being taken by women,—two of whom come and weed and pick fruit with great ability,—and I have been able to get an old man two days a week. Now that my foreman and cow-man are leaving, I shall take a well-trained woman-gardener as head and let her get her own assistants, beginning them as pupils.

While not every girl can aspire to positions which have been filled by carefully trained men, still there are thousands of girls and women who are so quick and deft that in a short time they can be trained to perform all the duties of a gardener under slight supervision. Given the same instruction, the girl of fifteen will outstrip the boy of fifteen in the art of gardening by months.

Women have their place wherever it is a question of the breeding and caring for animals. They have an innate sympathy with them which is most helpful, especially in the milking of cows, where they are usually more successful than men. Never have I had such success with poultry as when a Scotch cook took charge of my hens. They laid all winter and ate less wheat in six months than they usually do in three.

The National Political League has obtained a small grant from the English Government to assist girls to get training in gardening and other trades, and Mr. Farrar, a well-known authority of poultry-breeding, fruit-farming, etc., proposes to take pupils without fees.

The whole question of putting women to work in these rural occupations, drained of their men workers, is the question of "saving England," of "saving the land for the men who are fighting."



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SIR THOMAS LIPTON AND PARTY WITH SERBIAN OFFICERS ABOUT TO START ON A VISIT TO THE SERBIAN FORTS AT BELGRADE

IMPRESSIONS OF SERBIA

A WRITER in the Swiss monthly, *Bibliothèque Universelle*, who has spent some time in Serbia, is impressed by the varied activities of the military and hospital corps from the allied armies. He noted a marked difference between the English and French representatives in their manner of procedure. The English, he says, arrive in Serbia with a determined purpose. "They have foreseen everything, and are completely organized." Not only is their hospital installation complete, but their personal equipment down to the smallest detail is all on the ground and ready for use. Nor is the comfort of the workers overlooked, for packs and cases are filled with a great assortment of necessities. They begin work immediately. "Once on the spot and organized, the hospital or the sanitary service which they propose to direct belongs to them. They are quite at home among themselves and do not hear the orders which others give. Their domain becomes a little fragment of the British Empire."

The French, on the other hand, arrive with a less clearly defined purpose. They put

themselves at the disposition of the Serbian Government which decides what direction their activities shall take. "Thus I met yesterday two little French Boy Scouts who had worked on the French front as chauffeur and machinist for more than five months, and who came directly from Paris without knowing a single Serbian word in order to enter the Serbian service. In the afternoon of the same day I saw them again proudly ensconced on an auto truck which they were guiding with a firm hand through the poorly paved streets of Kragujevatz."

The French mingle freely with the people of the country and are everywhere seen making friends with soldiers and civilians, in the meantime picking up a Serbian vocabulary.

The writer remarks that in spite of these obvious differences of nature the vivacious French and the phlegmatic English both fulfil equally well their common duty towards their brothers in arms.

For reasons that will be readily understood this writer does not speak of the extent of the military aid lent by the Allies to the Serbians. It is sufficient to say that the allied troops are

represented in Serbia, and that France, England, and Russia are joining in the military reinforcement of the country. In fact, it is now conceded that this part of the theater of war will have great importance in the issue. During the winter, as well as a great part of the autumn and spring, Serbia is one of the few ways of communication, if not the surest, between France and England on the one side, and Russia on the other. In fact, last December an effective reinforcement of troops permitted the Serbians to invade Hungary and to cooperate with the Russians.

Serbia has not let so many months of cessation from active warfare pass by without profiting from it by reorganizing and equipping her army and war apparatus. At the present time the army, in spite of the relatively large losses of the past autumn, is quite as strong as at the beginning of hostilities. The morale of the troops, powerfully stimulated by the lasting victories of the month of December, is excellent.

It is true that the uniforms have become

rather more variegated than those of last autumn, but they are more military, thanks to the numerous pieces of equipment left by the Austro-Hungarians on their precipitate retreat. "Austria has remained, in spite of the war, but quite involuntarily, one of the best purveyors of the Serbian kingdom."

In the streets of Valjevo and other Serbian cities one may see to-day the hospital uniforms and costumes of all the allied nations and of some neutrals. From the French military physicians in varied uniforms, the English surgeon is distinguished by his comfortable suit of khaki. English and Scotch nurses, as well as Russian Sisters of Charity, are severely gowned in brown woolen with a Red Cross on the breast. Everywhere one meets people who, when speaking to the inhabitants of the city, take conversational dictionaries out of their pockets in order to find the needed Serbian word. It is said that Serbia has never before seen, and probably will never see again, in her towns so many representatives of foreign nations.

SERBIA AND DALMATIA

THE article in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne, Switzerland), from which we have quoted above, proceeds to discuss the attitude of the Serbian people towards the so-called Dalmatian question.

It had been assumed in Serbia before Italy entered the war that she would expect as compensation a large part of Dalmatia, which is considered by the Serbians as Slavonic territory and especially Serbo-Croatian. Prior to the Venetian domination of four hundred years, Dalmatia had been governed by Serbian and Croatian princes. Ragusa was a city famous especially for her literary men and was known as the Slavonic Athens.

The Venetians brought soldiers, officers, traders, priests, and with them the Italian language into the cities. It was principally the clergy, in charge of the schools, who were the powerful agents of Italianism. Nevertheless the peasants and even the inhabitant of the city suburbs have remained Slavonic and have always continued to use the Serbian language. In spite of the official character of the Italian, certain rurals of the communes have always addressed their correspondence to the authorities in Serbia. All the population of Dalmatia assembled in the old church near Kwine even to-day, in order to commemorate the 15th of June, the battle of Kasso (1385) where fell, with the Emperor Lazare, Great Serbia which had encompassed all the Jugo-Slavonic countries even to the gates of Salonica.

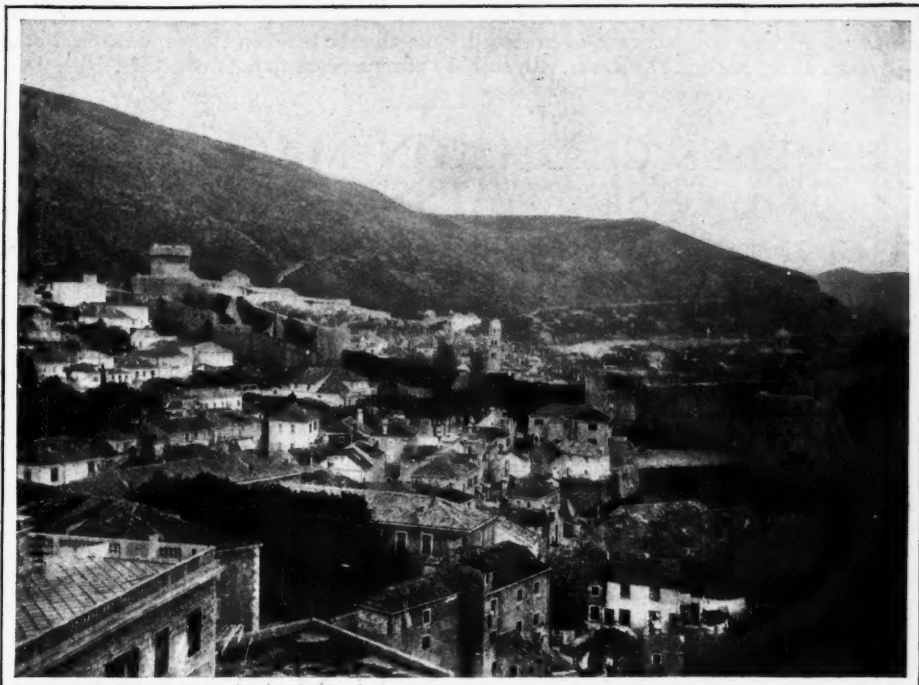
During the short lapse of time that Dalmatia passed under the rule of the French, the latter recognized the Slavonic character of the country and printed at Zara their official bulletin in Serbian. This French domination of the country had still another effect: It awakened the national sentiment among the Dalmatians.

In 1815 the Congress of Vienna again awarded Dalmatia to the Austrians, who had already had it from 1797 to 1806. The latter, considering themselves half an Italian power, naturally favored Italianism at the expense of Slavism and the country remained in intimate contact with Lombardy and Venetia.

But the house of Hapsburg having lost these two provinces in 1859 and 1866, Dalmatia, separated from them, came in touch with the Jugo-Slavonic countries which surrounded her and felt, at the same time, the attraction of free Serbia.

All this and especially the reform of the political régime to which Austria saw herself forced, contributed to awakening more and more the national idea in the people. A national Serbo-Croatian party was formed and worked openly through the newspapers, literary societies, and on political grounds for the emancipation of the Jugo-Slavonians.

The government of Vienna naturally does not take kindly to these efforts. The Italian party serves her for paralyzing them. In spite of these difficulties the Serbo-Croatian party prevails and soon they have the majority in the Dalmatian Diet. They profit by officially introducing the Serbian language into the administration and the schools. At the present time, the Serbian is so truly the language of the country that the candidates of the Italian party are forced to



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE CITY OF RAGUSA IN DALMATIA, ONCE UNDER SERBIAN RULE AND KNOWN AS "THE SLAVONIC ATHENS"

address themselves to the electorate in this language in order to invite them to vote for them!

The Austrian census of 1910 shows a population of 645,606 in Dalmatia, of whom 610,669 are Serbo-Croatians and 18,018 Italians. Only 3 per cent. of this population are Italian! Moreover, thirty-six of these forty-two deputies of the Diet are Serbo-Croatians and the eleven Dalmatic deputies of the Reichsrat are all Serbo-Croatian.

The feeling of the greater part of the inhabitants of Dalmatia has remained Serbian. Even Chibenikois Nicolas Thomaseo, a literary man better known in the Italian language, considers himself a scion of the Serbian race, and he felt for Serbia when he wrote: "For us other Serbians, the national songs are the only school where we can learn the beauty of our tongue." The Serbian victories in the Balkan wars were celebrated nowhere with as much enthusiasm as in Dalmatia.

Serbia has a further reason of an economic or commercial nature for desiring the reunion of Dalmatia and Serbia. Most of the Slavonic countries need Dalmatia for the sake of access to the sea.

As to Italy's argument that it is indispensable to her national welfare to have the larger part of the Dalmatian coast in order to prevent a future Slavonic expansion to the West, this writer does not regard the possi-

bility of such expansion as a real danger to Italy's interests.

If this war ends with a complete victory for the Allies, and if an impartial division makes Great Serbia Jougo-Slavonic, the Serbians will then have attained to their national idea and will not demand any more than to exploit peaceably the riches of their country, which have been underrated up to the present time. They have no desire to annex other countries which do not belong ethnographically to them. The example of Alsace-Lorraine has been understood here.

Moreover, they will have so much to do and organize in the interior that their activity will be limited to this work for many years. And then all their pecuniary resources will be absorbed by these needs. Just reflect upon what it will cost in money and work to completely organize or establish a port at Ragusa, Zara, or Cattaro!

It may even be to Italy's interest to have Dalmatia controlled by Serbia.

Great Serbia reorganized will no longer make herself a servant to Austria and Germany, as Little Serbia has been compelled to do. Italy united with the Serbians by an open friendship will take her place quite naturally and will open up her own market for the Balkan countries. She has now a major commercial and industrial advantage in drawing near to Serbia.

Even in case of victory by the Allies, Germany and Austria will continue to exist and will seek to restore their lost power. In such a case it is suggested by this writer that a close alliance between Italy and Serbia would be advantageous to both countries.

SERBIA'S CLAIMS ON MACEDONIA: HER CASE AGAINST BULGARIA

THE Allies have been hard at work lately, trying to accomplish the apparently hopeless task of reconciling the differences between Bulgaria and the other members of the disrupted Balkan League. On a small scale Bulgaria has really been subjected to a policy of isolation such as Germany has complained of in recent years. In order to enjoy her full share of the trade opportunities offered in the Adriatic, as well as to consolidate the scattered members of her branch of the Slavic race, she demands as her right in any future readjustment of the Balkans that share of Macedonia of which she was deprived in the second Balkan War. This matter is handled in the Italian review, *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) with some natural partiality by a Serbian deputy and ex-Minister of Commerce, Costa Stoyanovitch. While he freely recognizes the almost imperative necessity that induces the Allies to leave no means untried that will bring the Balkan States into the war, he strongly opposes the abandonment of Serbian Macedonia, and, although the latest reports indicate that Serbia may be persuaded to yield on this point, the writer's views on the subject still retain their interest and value. He says:

Serbia, Rumania, and Greece, in regulating their political relations by the Treaty of Bucharest in 1913, had for their aim the assurance of the Balkans for the Balkan peoples, to the exclusion of any hegemony of one of those peoples over the others. To wish now to destroy this work, by means of an evident violation of the principle of nationality, cannot correspond either with the well-understood interests of the Balkan peoples or with those of the great powers, which have undertaken the present war in defense of the cause of justice against the violence of brute force.

We fully understand all the difficulties at this moment existing in the field of military operations, but it should be plain that if Serbia,—who has been fighting for four years in defense of her individual rights and for the triumph of justice, risking therefor her very national existence,—should not feel able to give up Macedonia, this is wholly and solely because that province is for her an essential element of her existence.

Turning then to the vexed question of the racial affinities of the Macedonian population, the writer gives a brief summary of the

history of Serbia, Macedonia and Bulgaria, and claims to show that the Slavs of Macedonia are much more closely related to the Serbs than to the Bulgarians. Indeed, it is easier for a Serb to make himself understood by them than it is for a Bulgarian to do so. Of the geographical conditions the writer states:

Macedonia does not even belong to Bulgaria geographically, while with Serbia it forms a geographical unity. The valley of the Vardar, the principal Macedonian river, is only the continuation of the Serbian valley of the Morava. Thus it is that the main line of communication between the Danube and Salonica, passing through the valley of the Morava, naturally continues its course by the valley of the Vardar toward Salonica.

On the other hand, Macedonia is divided from Bulgaria by great chains of mountains, rendering impossible any free communication between the two regions, to such a degree that if Macedonia should be ceded to Bulgaria the communication between an eastern and a western Bulgaria would have to be over Serbia by way of Nish, just as is the case now. With the cession of Macedonia to Bulgaria, this state would thrust itself like a wedge between Serbia and Greece, acquiring a form so far unknown in a national territory.

Hence, for Serbia, the cession of Macedonia is not equivalent to parting with a contiguous province, without the possession of which she could continue undisturbed her national life. If this were so, Serbia would not have spilled her blood so freely to gain Macedonia. In fact, this province, not only because of its resources and its economic value, but also because of its geographic position, is the most important Serbian province.

Across Macedonia runs the railway from Belgrade to Salonica, and at the present time the whole trade of Serbia goes by way of this province. Even when Serbia shall have territory of her own on the Adriatic, a great part of Serbian commerce will still pass across Macedonia to the Adriatic. This being the state of things, can Serbia renounce this province and yield it to Bulgaria, against whom she has waged a bloody war in its defense from assault? And is it either fit or proper to ask if Serbia, after all her sacrifices for the liberation of her blood relations, that she should perform such a mutilation of her body politic? Let us for one moment suppose what Italy would reply, if she were asked to cede Lombardy or Liguria in exchange for liberal compensation in Asia Minor or in some other part of the world. Would not her answer be, Never!

BULGARIA'S ATTITUDE

IT seems at this critical juncture of the war as if Bulgaria held the key to the situation. Both belligerents have made the most strenuous efforts to influence her course. In view of the immense importance of her decision, an article by a Bulgarian in the August *Revue de Paris*, giving the reasons of Bulgaria's hesitating, calculating attitude, is of unusual interest. To give the gist of his contentions:

In order to comprehend those reasons, he begins, we must go back three years, to the Balkan war, for the present situation is the outcome of the events of 1912. When in that year the Balkan States, united for the first time in centuries, went to war against Turkey,—whose power in Europe had been made possible by their dissensions,—it was unquestionably Bulgaria upon whom fell the heaviest task. She had then,—as she has now,—the largest army, and a superior standing abroad. The Turks, who regarded Bulgaria as their principal adversary, directed their main attacks against her. It was the Battle of Lule Burgas and the strategic pursuit of the Turks that decided the conflict—the Turks could not advance a step further. But the effort had been severe; and when, after the protracted London negotiations, the war was continued, it was the Bulgarian army that bore the brunt of the fighting, repulsed the Turks, and, by a brilliant feat of arms, secured peace by a threat, which it was able to carry out, of marching upon Constantinople.

The responsibility for the second Balkan war rests, the writer asserts, upon all the Balkan States. The Bulgarians can, however, justly say that the Serbs and Greeks in agreeing, in February, to retain and divide Macedonia, assigned to Bulgaria by the treaties of 1912, had desired that war and prepared for it.

Violating the principle of nationalities,—the great idea of modern times,—the Treaty of Bucharest wrested the Dobrudja from Bulgaria, leaving the latter's frontiers about where they were before the war, thus nullifying the result of her efforts and giving to others the countries secured by her hard-won victories.

Hence Bulgaria's sore, crushed feeling, a feeling that Europe had done her a great injustice, and one of resentment against her old allies.

Does that mean that Bulgaria's present attitude is one of stubborn rancor, and that



KING FERDINAND OF BULGARIA

she cannot be counted upon under any circumstances?

No, and it is important to correct a misconception of the present war. Bulgaria has repeatedly been accused of entering into agreements with the enemies of the Entente, and when the government announced its intention of abiding by the neutrality it had, in the interest of the country, proclaimed at the outset of the war, it was received with skepticism. In addition to other charges, it has been said that King Ferdinand is the supreme obstacle to an understanding with the Allies,—an assertion betraying scant knowledge of King and country. He is, to be sure, connected by birth with Germany and Austria, but he is, likewise, the grandson of Louis Philippe, and is deeply attached to France, drawn to it by his education and his tastes. Moreover, since the twenty-seven years of his reign over Bulgaria, to whose advancement he has so powerfully contributed, he has so completely identified himself with his people that he is inspired solely by their wishes and feelings.

Now, the Bulgarian nation, despite its bitter memories of two years ago, has not changed its sentiments. It bears in grateful remembrance the war of liberation undertaken by Russia, and cherishes the memory of

Alexander II, the liberator, with pristine devotion. Nor have the sympathies of the people for France undergone a change, despite the unjust campaign against Bulgaria of a large part of the French press two years ago. They are drawn to her by kindred tastes and aspirations, by the intellectual and moral advantages gained by their youth in the universities of France. If Bulgaria, then, has not yet joined the Quadruple Entente, it is not for the reasons that have been unjustly attributed to her. In politics sentiments are, for that matter, not the only things that count; in every country there are certain essential, supreme interests, particularly in momentous crises, which determine it to act or to refrain from action.

Let us see, then, what the important facts are that determined the course pursued by the Bulgarian Government up to the present.

First of all we must mention the exhaustion consequent upon the two Balkan wars. This exhaustion, very real and considerable, despite the energetic efforts of the people, is an important factor from two points of view. Firstly, Bulgaria could not support a long war without grave risks to its economic development. The effort might be intense, but it could hardly extend beyond a few months. In the second place, the Bulgarians,—one must have the courage to say so frankly,—do not want war. They do not, they cannot desire it, for the memory of their sufferings is still too fresh. In 1913 of a nation of four millions, 600,000 were under the colors. The people experienced the most awful horrors of war,—hunger, thirst, cold, cholera, and later, the sorrow of retreat, the vision of their devastated country.

And then the peasants,—and they form nine-tenths of the population,—are always opposed to war. They, like the French peasantry, are devotedly attached to the soil, which nourishes them from childhood to the grave; war would mean to abandon it anew.

Why give further reasons? Let us just imagine the state of feeling in France two years after this fearful war and how those would be greeted who should speak of a new campaign.

Fortunately in Bulgaria,—and here we enter the heart of the matter,—there exists a lever which can start the armies to march once more. She has a "national ideal," and in order to realize that,—but for that alone,—she is capable of enduring the hardships and running the risks of another war. Gaining its political independence in 1878, Bulgaria began at once the work of liberating Macedonia,—aroused its people to a sense of nationality, demanded for it a more humane régime, demonstrated to Europe Bulgaria's rights over it. This work has been her ceaseless preoccupation since twenty-five years,—it is her supreme aim.

Macedonia has often been compared to Alsace-Lorraine,—justly so as far as a national sentiment for Bulgaria is concerned; but to make the comparison complete, Alsace-Lorraine would have to equal in extent and population the half of France as Macedonia does the half of Bulgaria.

And that is why the Bulgarians have always subordinated everything to the question of Macedonia. That is why they have never ceased to talk and think of it; *that is why the people cannot be induced to go to war to-day unless they are guaranteed the possession of that province.*

Bulgaria consented, through political necessity, to cede a part of Macedonia to Serbia; but she did not consider the sacrifice irrevocable. It was known at Sofia that the day would come when Serbia would seek to realize her national aspirations as regards Bosnia and Herzegovina, and that day Bulgaria, in return for her active aid or friendly neutrality, could demand the retrocession of Bulgarian territory, temporarily ceded to Serbia.

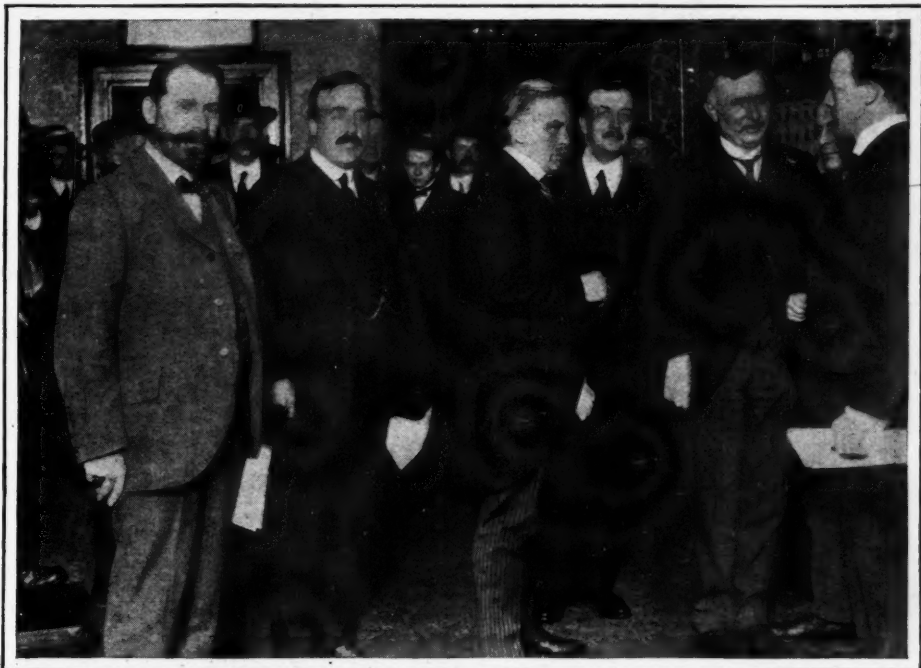
"If then," the writer observes, "Bulgaria enters into an engagement to-morrow, will she demand the whole of Macedonia? We lack the information necessary to enable us to answer that question at the present moment; but it is possible, since she considers that province equally Bulgarian throughout its entire extent."

Certain districts ceded to Greece by the Treaty of Bucharest should likewise, the writer claims, be yielded to Bulgaria, they being absolutely indispensable to her. These pretensions, he adds, may at a first glance appear extravagant. But they are explained and justified if one considers the territorial gains that Serbia would and Greece might make should the Quadruple Entente be victorious.

It is widely and erroneously believed that if Bulgaria should decide to fight the Turks, it would mean for her merely a military promenade.

Outside of the Ottoman forces actually engaged in the Dardanelles, the Turks have a great nucleus in the rear, equaling several army corps, and constituting the main body of their army. The objective of this army is to attack any new antagonist that might appear, whether in the Gulf of Saros or from Bulgaria.

To compass the fall of Constantinople, one would first have to become master of the peninsula of Gallipoli and of the vast entrenched field extending from Tchatalja to the Bosphorus. These two positions will be fiercely contested, because the Young Turks and the Germans, who hold the army in their hands, will fight to the last extremity,—the former to defend their country and their lives, the latter to retard to the limits of the possible a success which would be sure to react upon the course of operations in Central Europe.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

MR. LLOYD GEORGE CONFERRING WITH REPRESENTATIVES OF MINE OWNERS AND OPERATIVES PRIOR TO HIS SETTLEMENT OF THE WELSH COAL STRIKE

TRADE-UNIONISM HAMPERING ENGLAND

ENGLAND'S greatest lack in this, her time of sorest need, it is now known to all the world, is not the lack of soldiers, or of men willing to become soldiers and to offer up their lives for her on the field of battle, but is the lack of munitions of warfare,—high-explosive shells, and other materials and implements of war equipment,—which are demanded in unprecedented quantities by the present appalling conflict. And responsibility for that lack of munitions, the evidence is unmistakable, rests largely with England's industrial workers (or, rather, shirkers) at home. The munitions industry, it appears, is dominated by an antiquated and almost unbelievably callous and selfish trade-unionism, which receives a scathing castigation at the hands of Mr. W. Errol Muir in an enlightening paper on "The Engineers and the War" contributed by him to the *English Review* for August.

Taking for his text the statement of Mr. Lloyd George that "This is an engineers' war," and using the term "engineer" in a

specifically British sense that is hardly known in America (a sense for which the handiest equivalent in United States English, perhaps, is "machinist"), Mr. Muir first of all defines his term by saying that "Engineers proper may be divided into fitters and turners, and for each of these branches an apprenticeship of five years is served. A third class of engineer is the machinist or semi-skilled man, who is developed by training men of any class to work certain machine tools." A turner is essentially the worker of a turning-lathe. The fitter assembles and puts together parts on which the machining has already been done. These two classes are the recognized skilled workers who form the backbone of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers; while the machinists have various unions of their own, but are also eligible for membership (though not as full members) of the A. S. E.

The engineer's position at present is that his hourly wages are at the highest point they have ever reached in the history of the trade; in the

majority of establishments by the operation of piecework and bonus systems, he can still further add to his earnings by a little application and intelligence. Further, his union has built up for him a system of allowances of all sorts and conditions, which operate to his advantage. . . .

After detailing the method of dealing with wage questions which is recognized and established between the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and several other unions and the Engineering Employers' Federation, which comprises 90 per cent. of the leading employers of the country, the writer says:

At the beginning of the war the spirit of the Engineering Unions was admirable, so long as there was a fear of depression and wholesale unemployment. They met the masters in conference and measures were adjusted to take care of the situation then foreshadowed; shops were to be kept on short time instead of discharging men, transference of workmen to centers where naval and military work was in execution was to take place from areas where business was at a standstill, and the *status quo* as to wages was to be observed. Altogether a spirit of mutual helpfulness was the note of these meetings, but very soon a change took place. Orders from the War Office and the Admiralty soon filled up the regular Government contractors and overflowed into all sorts of engineering shops; small shops found themselves in demand as sub-contractors, and instead of unemployment there came suddenly a shortage of men, as many had enlisted on the outbreak of war. All the orders were urgent, and instead of short time, overtime began to be worked everywhere, to cope with the torrent of work which the Government Departments let loose. . . .

Then the A. S. E. began to wake up and get busy. Here were the conditions ready made, which they had often dreamed of with only a wistful hope that they would ever be realized. For years the men had been taught that the employer was the enemy, that he exploited labor for his own private benefit, that he regarded his men simply as means to the end of his own aggrandizement. . . . Now the employer was delivered into their hands. The necessity of the nation was imperative, no stoppage would be tolerated, and the country would look with impatience and disfavor on any dispute for wages at such a time. The temptation was too much for the men, and from all over the country evidences began to accumulate that they had decided "to get some of their own back." The Clyde strike was an extreme example of the spirit that began to prevail. . . . A fortnight's work at a most critical time involving dislocation and delay on hundreds of the nation's contracts was absolutely lost and irrecoverable.

But this is only the first count in the arraignment, and not the strongest one, according to this writer. He continues:

Humiliating as the spectacle was of men deliberately going on strike and curtailing the supply of war equipment while their brothers were fighting in the trenches, it has been eclipsed by their behavior in the shops since the later weeks of August, in a manner which only the harassed

and heart-sick employer can understand. The spirit which has been displayed is almost beyond belief, and has taken the form of a stubborn and active campaign against any methods or arrangements which might secure the increased productivity of the works, and the imposition of restrictions and insistence on Trade Union "principles" continued unceasingly and in the most aggravated form. Disputes to enforce the manning of certain machines by skilled men in place of semi-skilled when every skilled man was required for special work occurred in several shops. Petty grievances of all kinds were magnified and fomented to the detriment of steady work and output. . . .

Shop managers were afraid to introduce inventions to secure greater efficiency in production in case of trouble, and any departure from ordinary peace-time conditions of working was the sign for threats of stoppage. Obsolete practises and claims, which could not be enforced upon the employers in normal times, were resuscitated and insisted upon. Concessions were made to endeavor to avoid difficulties, but every concession has been seized upon and utilized as a jumping-off place for something more.

Several examples are narrated in detail of the ways in which the Amalgamated Society of Engineers "sought at a most critical period of the war to insist upon their own ideals at the expense of the country and to coerce the employers into acceptance of conditions which the Union had been unable to enforce in peace time." Naturally, this reactionary spirit was not known to the public generally. One measure after another was tried by the government to overcome it. Several firms secured men from Canada, the United States, and elsewhere; and volunteer labor, clerks, stockbrokers, teachers, even clergymen, offered services, but the unions declined to permit them to start. All sorts of inducements were of no avail.

In any well-organized, modern establishment an increase in output from 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. can be attained if trade-union restrictions are removed, and this without injury to the well-being of any worker. This margin can be attained in the majority of cases by working the machine tools themselves to the capacity intended by the designers, which can readily be done without imposing any extra exertion, either physical or mental, on the tool attendant. But the old fallacy that the longer a job can be made to last the better for the workman retains its hoary supremacy, and is acted upon to its limit in the shops under the domination of the A. S. E. . . .

The Government misjudge, and have misjudged all along, the psychology of the workers, and to their error of judgment is largely due the industrial chaos of to-day. Neither the workman nor their leaders will accept strong measures voluntarily, or as the result of arguments and discussion, but they look to the Government as having a single eye to the national good and a single purpose to achieve. And if strong measures are necessary to secure that purpose, they will accept them and feel the better for

their acceptance, even although they may indulge in their necessary prerogative of a preliminary grumble.

The Minister of Munitions enters upon his office with the confidence of the country that he has a single aim ahead of him; let him on his part trust the country to back him in any measure,

however strong, which will wipe away the intolerable incubus which has settled upon the industry of our workshops, and in any action to secure the means of shortening by a single day the sacrifice of the best of our nation's manhood to the callous and irreconcilable selfishness of trade-union principles.

REFRIGERATED MEATS FOR ITALY'S ARMIES

ONE of the great problems in the world-war has been, of course, the provisioning of the millions of men on and behind the fighting lines, and here, as in so many other instances, the modern appliances worked out in the past decades have been found of incalculable value. This is notably the case with the application of cold-storage and freezing to the preservation of animal tissues. By this means the European countries have been able to draw upon America and Australasia for a considerable part of their meat supplies, instead of being forced to drain their own rural districts of their flocks and herds. That this policy should be consistently carried out in Italy as in England and France, is the contention of Signor Massimo Tortelli in an article in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome).

The writer notes the experience of France where, at the outset of the war, an attempt was made to requisition a large part of the cattle and concentrate them in a number of preserves, where they could be slaughtered as occasion demanded, and the fresh meat transported to the army. It was soon found, however, that the supplies would be insufficient, and also that fresh meat was not as available for provisioning troops as was refrigerated or frozen meat, since the latter, especially, would preserve its freshness while it was in transit, even when several days, or perhaps weeks, elapsed before it could be used.

Thus, while at the outset of the war France levied a heavy duty upon imported meats, as much as 35 francs per quintal (220 lbs.), a decree issued August 2, 1914, abolished this impost, only retaining a charge of one franc for the cost of inspection. As a result, the quantity of refrigerated meat imported in the first six months of 1915 reached a total of 150,000 metric tons, representing about 450,000 head of cattle and being nearly half the total quantity of meat normally consumed in France. This example is held up by the writer for imitation in Italy, where so

far this year only very small quantities of refrigerated meats have been imported. Of the ill effects of this, Signor Tortelli says:

Now I do not hesitate to affirm that if the indications gathered can be accepted as probative, we are approaching a real disaster; for even by draining the farms of their cattle it will be impossible to secure meat in sufficient quantity to satisfy the increased consumption necessitated by a state of war, not even by paying an exorbitant price for the supply. For we have to deal with another unfavorable factor that statistics bring to light, namely, that our reserves of cattle are smaller this year than in former years. While the importation of cattle has decreased, the normal exportation has not grown less. . . . Why it is that at the opening of our war, regarded as inevitable for nine months, we should find ourselves in these unsafe conditions as to the supply of this indispensable aliment is inexplicable for me and still more difficult is it for me to understand that now, when the need of making some provision is most pressing, and indeed imperative, we can suppose this can be done by having recourse to the old method of an exclusive dependence upon the home supply, and subject ourselves to the bad results inherent in this system, with the inevitably recurrent rise in prices until a figure is reached which will be prohibitive for a great part of our population. And this is all the stranger that only three years ago our land was one of the foremost in its acceptance of the new methods. The Italian army, in fact, was the second, after the English army, to adopt for the provisioning of its soldiers and marines the most modern and rational meat diet, I intentionally say the most rational, since it is at once the most economical, the most wholesome, and the cheapest.

That a liberal meat ration is of prime importance to maintain the vigor of troops in active warfare, and that of those workers upon whom war imposes additional or harder labor, is the opinion of this writer and with a few exceptions that of most of those qualified to judge of the matter, and as Italy has full and free commerce with the great cold-storage houses of England, with their abundant supplies of refrigerated meats from America, New Zealand, and Australia, she has no excuse for not availing herself of these opportunities.

THERAPEUTIC VALUE OF HYPNOTISM

ONE of the most absorbing subjects of recent medical study is that of the degree in which the physical condition can be affected by mental states or processes, and the method by which such affection is caused. Since violent emotions instantly produce such marked bodily symptoms as blushing, pallor, trembling, dizziness, or unconsciousness, or even in extreme cases, death itself, it is natural that the conclusion should be drawn that less violent but more continuous mental conditions should likewise produce deeper-seated and more permanent alterations in the body.

Modern science is prepared to grant that this conclusion is justified in many cases. Unfortunately, however, the subject is one which lends itself with peculiar facility to exploitation by the ignorant, the self-deluded, and the conscious charlatan. It is well, therefore, that reputable experts should make known to the general public the facts as to the proper extent of the application of "mental healing."

In a recent number of the *Revue de Psychothérapie* (Paris), Dr. Joire discusses the value of hypnotism as an agent of such healing, bringing out certain points not generally known. He begins by the uncompromising declaration that hypnotism can be made to fortify feeble wills and cure sick and vacillating wills. Contrary to a widely spread opinion, he holds that a person who has been treated by hypnotism is always more master of himself, and with stronger will-power than other people. Concerning the fear which restrains many from seeking relief in hypnotism, namely that they may remain unduly under the power of the hypnotizer, he remarks that such enslavement is often heard of in newspaper stories and in tales of fiction, but not in real life. He says apropos of this:

There are people who are weak-natured and easily influenced who allow their actions to be directed by others. It is much to the interest of such persons to fortify their own will-power. Even professional hypnotic subjects are not the slaves of those who hypnotize them. One does not change the *nature* of the subject by hypnotizing him. A thief remains a thief and an honest man remains honest; even when hypnotized they do not appreciate things in the same fashion. It is said a suggestion must be carried out; but if such suggestion is repugnant to the conscience of the subject he transforms it.

Instead of *realizing* the suggestion he falls into a state of hypnosis which lasts several instants and the effect of the suggestion passes away. This striking and obvious experiment demonstrates the phenomenon of conscience preventing a suggestion from being realized.

Dr. Joire believes that this argument removes all possible objection to the employ of hypnotism as a therapeutic agent capable of giving efficient and valuable aid to the physician who understands its proper use, and he thus states its function: To cure sometimes, to alleviate often, to console always. But he stresses the fact that the hypnotizer must be *competent*, quoting Dr. Bérillon's dictum that a hypnotist-physician cannot be improvised any more readily than a trained oculist. Contrary to the belief that hypnotism can be properly employed only in nervous maladies he claims that its empire is far vaster.

Hypnotism acts by means of the nervous system as an intermediary; but the nervous system dominates the whole organism. The muscles are made to move by the nerves; the nerves regulate the circulation by their direct action on the heart and by action on the blood-vessels which they dilate or contract. The nerves, therefore, act upon all the organs, and by their means one may apply treatment to sick organs.

No one contests the fact that nervous maladies belong essentially in the domain of hypnotism. Hysteria, with all its very diverse manifestations can be treated efficaciously and completely cured by hypnotism alone. Epilepsy finds in various more complex hypnotic applications an efficacious remedy, which in many cases permits us to achieve a cure.

Neurasthenia, a malady essentially of our century, due to exhaustion, whether by work, by affairs, by pleasures, is surely cured by the hypnotic method. Unhappily many patients do not decide to have recourse to it until precious time has been lost in trying a swarm of other treatments, which prove inefficacious and serve only to discourage them.

But Dr. Joire maintains that many maladies other than nervous ones may be ameliorated by hypnotic treatment. Thus, in tuberculosis patients, especially in the early stages, appetite may be restored by such means, thus building up strength to fight the infection. He shows how these and other unfortunates may be aided by suggestion.

Their painful insomnia may be combated, their strength restored, and their weight astonishingly augmented. In digestive troubles suggestion acts efficaciously by means of the muscles of the stomach and intestines. In all circulation troubles we may operate as we have said, by the nerves which constrict or dilate the vessels, in such wise as to increase or diminish the circulation, to draw the blood towards certain organs, or to relieve them of congestion.

The curative action of hypnotism and suggestion is also of capital importance to correct certain faults or vicious habits. Alcoholism, that social sore of our times, has long been treated with success by suggestion.

THE OCCUPATIONS OF A PUEBLO INDIAN GIRL

"IT is said that the Pueblo Indians are a lazy people, but that seems strange to me, for I do not remember ever passing an idle day in my home. My mother believed that if we were not kept at work, Satan would find mischief for idle hands, so she was careful to keep us all busy at some kind of work."

This answer to the assertion that the Pueblo Indians are lazy was written by Carmen Montion, a Yaqui Indian girl from El Paso, Texas, in a Hampton anniversary essay, "Occupations of a Pueblo Indian Girl," published in the August number of the *Southern Workman*. It is true that the Pueblos have always been industrious. They were house-builders, weavers, potters, and successful herdsmen and farmers as far back as we have any history of the tribes. The most important Indian house ruins are those traditionally built by the Pueblos. Weaving cotton on looms of their own devising was a general industry among them before the Franciscan missionaries introduced sheep in the sixteenth century. Afterward the Navahos, enlarging upon their teaching, developed the weaving of the Navaho blanket. Their pottery has always been considered exceptionally beautiful. It is smooth and painted with symbolic designs. Among the Hopi Pueblos basket-making and wood-carving was brought to a high degree of perfection.

Carmen Montion's earliest memories are of the days when she was sent out to herd the sheep and goats:

In the early morning, about sunrise, I got up, ate my breakfast, prepared my lunch, — which consisted of *mocasiunie*, or dried meat, and a piece of bread. I took this in my little *terwa*, or skin-bag, out to the corral, where the sheep and goats were kept. I let down the bars, and the sheep and goats went out to

their pasture, where I remained with them all day.

Later recollections bring to my mind the shearing of the sheep in the latter part of the month of May. . . . The wool was cut and washed. After it was dried it was carded by means of a small implement something like the currycomb commonly used on horses. It was then combed with a coarse five-toothed comb like a small rake. When it was at this stage my mother colored it with Indian dyes made by extracting the coloring matter from roots, herbs, and the barks of trees. She then spun it into yarn, to be used for various weaving purposes.

During the winter months the little Indian girl helped her mother with the carding and weaving. The Pueblo Indian blankets, which are similar to the Navaho blankets except for the distinctive tribal design, are woven during the long winter months by the women.

At most times during the winter months they may be seen, at a distance from their huts, seated at their looms. The weaving outfit called a loom is very simple,—two sticks on which strings are hung, a long, flat stick to ram the threads with, one shaped like a cylinder to keep them straight, and a small one like a comb to prevent tangles, and nothing more.

Sometimes the seven-year-old girl was permitted to go with the older women to get clay for the Pueblo pottery; at other times she was set at work grinding corn for the



INDIAN WOMEN GRINDING CORN

(From the *Southern Workman*, Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute)

family use. The latter task she very much disliked.

Corn is ground on a *metate*, or stone slab, which is built thus: In one corner of the room is a *metate* for grinding corn. Two boards parallel, and, about two feet apart, are fixed on the floor, with just room enough behind the inner one for a woman to kneel between it and the wall. Between these boards there are placed at an angle smooth stones sunken in sloping beds of adobe plaster, so as to make them perfectly firm. It was behind such a slab that I used to kneel when grinding corn. I put in the amount of corn to be ground and with a stone implement something like a rolling pin I worked it all up and down on the slab, as we do when we wash, and ground it as fine as desired.

After the corn was ground it was ready to be used for *tamales* or bread. Paper bread is a favorite food with the Pueblos. I mixed coarse meal with water and a little salt, to about the consistency of very thin cream; then I heated a smooth, flat stone almost white-hot by a fire underneath, and with a dextrous fling of the hand I threw a handful of the mixture across the stone, so as to cover it. Immediately I caught

it by one corner and peeled it from the stone, a thin, papery layer, laying it to one side. Both movements required great dexterity, or the hand as well as the bread would have been burned. Subsequent layers are made and laid over the first, while they are still hot, until the pile is an inch thick. It is then folded up as if it were indeed a bunch of paper, and is ready to be eaten immediately or to be kept indefinitely. It tastes like salted parched corn and it looks much like a piece of hornet's nest, for the blue corn of which this bread is usually made turns grayish green when cooked.

Miss Montion concludes her essay with a re-statement of the forlorn fact that the old Indian life is rapidly vanishing. The tribes are assimilating new methods of living—adopting the white man's house, his clothing, and his food; and the picturesque methods of cookery, weaving, pottery, and agriculture will soon be but a memory even in the minds of those who in youth, like this Indian girl, learned the whole domestic formula of Pueblo life.

GERMANY FINDS SUBSTITUTES FOR COFFEE

ONE of the food supplies which the war has cut short in Germany is coffee, and with their usual thoroughness and practical efficiency the Germans have been classifying and appraising the possible substitutes. The stimulating and bracing effect of coffee is, of course, chiefly due to the percentage of caffeine which it contains, and to this is due likewise the various troubles, nervous or digestive, which overindulgence in strong coffee may cause.

However, the sense of comfort and well-being derived from a good cup of coffee is partly due to other qualities besides its content of this drug. In the first place it provides an admirable means of furnishing the body with the large amount of water which it requires, especially in hot summers and when the water supply is poor or bad. Secondly, part of its effect is due to the aromatic and other properties produced by the process of roasting the berry.

While this water need may be also supplied by wine, beer, and various "soft drinks," these secondary properties can be furnished by various other raw products when properly roasted and prepared. According to the *Naturwissenschaften* (Berlin) the preparation of such substitutes has already attained considerable commercial importance in Ger-

many. In this journal it is stated:

Since all coffee substitutes lack the most important constituents of real coffee, caffeine and coffee-oil, they cannot exert the favorable stimulation derived from moderate indulgence in coffee. On the other hand, they lack the frequently harmful effects of constant use of strong coffee. But the various substances produced by roasting, especially empyreumatic matter, play a significant part in nutrition, whether because they favor the excretion of certain digestive juices by their appetizing odor and taste, or whether they measurably check processes of corruption in the intestine, and thus react favorably on the bodily health.

Such substitutes are much made from edible roots, such as chicory, turnips, and dandelion. Also out of substances which are rich in sugar, such as figs, dates, honey-locust (*Johannis brot*), and burnt sugar.

A variety of raw materials rich in starch is likewise employed, including roasted grains such as rye, barley, and wheat; pod-fruits, especially lupine and soya-beans, with rare beans, peas, etc., and acorns. The latter are in especial favor to make a drink for children suffering from diarrhoea, on account of their content of tannic acid. Furthermore some fat-containing substances are used, including peanuts, date-kernels, and asparagus-berries. Finally use is made of grape-seeds, haws, the hips of wild roses (either with or without the fleshy-fruit). The empyreumatic products of roasting, in all these exert soothing or agreeable influence in various degrees.

These, as well as real coffee, may be impure and adulterated with worthless matter.

HAY-FEVER TREATED BY CALCIUM SALTS

THE "REVIEW OF REVIEWS" was, we believe, the first magazine in this country to place before the American public the remarkable and vitally important results of the investigation by the Munich scientists Dr. Emmerich and Dr. Loew of the part played in the bodily economy by lime and other salts of calcium, such as calcium lactate. Our readers will remember that calcium is an essential constituent of the cell-nucleus in which reside such marvelous potencies. Hence the necessity that its salts be present in abundance in the food of both men and animals.

Very recently these eminent German savants, as well as some of their disciples, have been studying the effect of calcium salts in various specific diseases. Very timely is the account in *Die Naturwissenschaften* (Berlin) for June 4 of their success in treating hay-fever by the calcium treatment. This success seems to be largely due to the effect of calcium in promoting assimilation and nutrition. The article, as summarized from the *Münchener Medizinische Wochenschrift*, says that assimilation of food is essentially increased by an abundant provision of calcium salts, which can be due only to increased formation of enzymes. It continues:

But this is an activity of the cell-nucleus, as proved by the experiments of Hofer.

Further results thereof are the strengthening of the body, an increase in the bactericidal action

of the blood known as phagocytosis, and in general an increase of resistance to various influences tending to produce illness.

Calcium salts also soothe the heightened irritability of the nerves and the tendency to sneezing, etc.

Doctors Emmerich and Loew describe in detail the symptoms of separate cases of hay-fever studied by them, cases sometimes very severe, and their treatment with calcium chloride. According to the article in question there are very few of the so-called constitutional diseases which can be so quickly controlled by any curative process as can hay-fever by calcium chloride, a fact which will spell relief for many thousand sufferers for whom the golden-rod and other pollen-bearing weeds and flowers which line our roads in late summer and early fall are signals of hardly borne torment or hardly won immunity by flight.

Features which specially enhance the value of this method are its low cost, its simplicity and ease of application and the fact that the calcium treatment as tried and earnestly recommended by Emmerich and Loew is not only entirely harmless but variously beneficial.

Many other investigators are publishing evidence as to successful handling of diseases of the most diverse character by the calcium treatment. . . . In short, it is claimed that this treatment is highly effective, acting physiologically by its effect on nutrition.

PERSONALITY IN FOLK-MUSIC

MR. PERCY GRAINGER, the young Australian pianist-composer who has been spending the greater part of the last year in America and some of whose compositions were among the most striking novelties performed at the leading orchestral concerts in several American cities in the last musical "season," has done more probably than any other living composer to revive interest in folk-music, and also to arouse interest in exotic musical systems,—particularly those of China and the South Sea Islands.

He has traveled widely in the pursuit of his hobby, and has gathered together a remarkably extensive collection (perhaps the largest and most comprehensive in the world) of phonograph records of folk-tunes from

almost all quarters of the world, a collection mounting to some four hundred examples. To the current issue of the *Musical Quarterly* Mr. Grainger contributes a very interesting discussion of "The Impress of Personality in Unwritten Music," based in part on an exhaustive examination of that collection of records, and in part on his personal experiences and experiments in exotic musical fields.

Taking it as a very hopeful sign that the present widespread interest in unwritten music ("be it European or Afro-American folk-songs and dances or native music from any quarter of the globe") apparently does not emanate from any reaction against the latest iconoclastic developments of our writ-

ten art-music, but that "it is mainly in the ranks of the most highly cultured musicians that we meet with the keenest interest in this 'back to the land' movement," he says:

While so many of the greatest musical geniuses listen spellbound to the unconscious, effortless musical utterances of primitive man, the general educated public, on the other hand, though willing enough to applaud adaptations of folk-songs by popular composers, shows little or no appreciation of such art in its unembellished original state, when, indeed, it generally is far too complex (as regards rhythm, dynamics, and scales) to appeal to listeners whose ears have not been subjected to the ultra-refining influence of close association with the subtle developments of our latest Western art-music.

After citing the case of Grieg as typical, and pointing out how much more the Norwegian genius owed the unique originality of his music to the strength of his own purely personal inventiveness than to any particular external or "national" source whatever, he continues.

As a rule folkmusic finds its way to the hearts of the general public and of the less erudite musicians only after it has been "simplified" (generally in the process of notation by well-meaning collectors ignorant of those more ornate subtleties of our notation alone fitted for the task) out of all resemblance to its original self. Nor is this altogether surprising when we come to compare town populations with the countryside or "savage" folk to whom we go for the unwritten material.

With regard to music, our modern Western civilization produces, broadly speaking, two main types of educated men. On the one hand, the professional musician, or leisured amateur-enthusiast, who spends the bulk of his waking hours making music, and on the other hand, all those many millions of men and women whose lives are far too overworked and arduous, or too completely immersed in the ambitions and labyrinths of our material civilization to be able to devote any reasonable proportion of their time to music or artistic expression of any kind at all. How different from either of these types is the bulk of uneducated and "uncivilized" humanity of every race and color, with whom natural musical expression may be said to be a universal, highly prized habit that seldom, if ever, degenerates into the drudgery of a mere means of livelihood.

Mental leisure and ample opportunity for indulging in the natural instinct for untrammelled and uncriticised and untaught artistic self-expression; these are the conditions imperative for the production and continuance of all unwritten music. Now primitive modes of living, however terrible some of them may appear to some educated and refined people, are seldom so barren of "mental leisure" as the bulk of our civilized careers. The old ignorant, unambitious English yokel, for instance, had plenty of opportunity for giving way to his passion for singing. He sang at his work (plough-songs are very general) just as the women folk sang when "waulking" wool. I need hardly mention that "work-songs" of

every description form a very considerable part of the music of primitive races the world over.

Because of the commercial slavery of our civilization, with us moderns life encroaches upon art, whereas with uneducated or primitive folk the reverse seems more often to be the case. "Their lives, their speech, their manners, even their clothes, all show the indelible impress of a superabundance of artistic impulses and interests."

H. G. Wells, the novelist, who was with me during a "folk-song hunt" in Gloucestershire, on noticing that I noted down not merely the music and dialect details of the songs, but also many characteristic scraps of banter that passed between the old agriculturists around us, once said to me: "You are trying to do a more difficult thing than record folk-songs; you are trying to record life." . . . But I felt then as I feel now, that it was the superabundance of art in these men's lives, rather than any superabundance of life in their art, that made me so anxious to preserve their old saws and note their little habits. . . .

I need hardly say that natural artists of this order sing or play without self-consciousness of any kind, and anything resembling "stage-fright" seems unknown to them. When such an one refuses to let himself be heard, it is, more often than not, because he regards his tunes as purely *personal property*, and does not wish to part with them to others any more than he would with his pipe or his hat. I recall the case of a rustic singer, who, in his anxiety to acquire a song from a fellow folksinger of this sort, had to hide himself in a cupboard in order to learn it, as its owner would never have consented to sing it if he had dreamt his performances were being listened to by a rival; and I have myself had to get under a bed in order to note down the singing of an old woman equally chary of passing on her accomplishments to any "Tom, Dick, or Harry."

This feeling of personal ownership of songs is still more strongly shown by many primitive non-European races, notably by the North American Indians.

The primitive musician unhesitatingly alters the traditional material he has inherited from thousands of unknown talents and geniuses before him to suit his own voice or instruments, or to make it conform to his purely personal taste for rhythm and general style. As an illustration of this, Mr. Grainger says:

I once let an old Lincolnshire man (a perfect artist in his way) hear in my phonograph a variant of one of the songs he had sung to me as sung by another equally splendid folksinger, and asked him if he didn't think it fine. His answer was typical: "I don't know about it's being fine or not; I only know it's *wrong*."

After devoting sections of his article to the complexity of folkmusic, to pointing out that

all unwritten music exhibits certain common traits, to communal polyphonic improvisation, to a description of Rarotongan part-singing, to musical "Treasure Islands" in the Pacific, and the richness of African rhythms, the writer pays this tribute to "the electrifying Clef Club of the City of New York":

A distant echo of the habits of unwritten music can be traced in the marvelous accomplishments of the colored instrumentalists and singers who make up the New York Clef Club, an organization which could not fail to electrify Europe if presented there, and to hear which it is more than worth one's while to travel across the Atlantic. The compositions they interpret are art-music, and reveal the strict harmonic habits of the written art, but the ease with which those members of the Club who cannot read musical notation learn and remember intricate band and choral parts by heart (often singing tenor and playing bass) and many individualistic and rhapsodical traits in their performances suggest the presence of instincts inherited from the days of communal improvisations.

Concerning what he considers to be "some of the lessons of unwritten music," Mr. Grainger says:

What life is to the writer, and nature to the painter, unwritten music is to many a composer: a kind of mirror of genuineness and naturalness. Through it alone can we come to know something of the incalculable variety of man's instincts for musical expression. From it alone can we glean some insight into what suggests itself as being "vocal" to natural singers whose tech-

nic has never been exposed to the influence of arbitrary "methods." In the reiterated physical actions of marching, rowing, reaping, dancing, cradle-rocking, etc., that called its work-songs, dance-music, ballads and lullabies into life, we see before our very eyes the origin of the regular rhythms of our art-music and of poetic meters, and are also able to note how quickly these once so rigid rhythms give place to rich and wayward irregularities of every kind as soon as these bodily movements and gestures are abandoned and the music which originally existed but as an accompaniment to them continues independently as art for art's sake.

To-day primitive music is still a closed book to most musicians. Mr. Grainger tells how when he was a boy in Frankfort his teacher wished him to enter for the Mendelssohn prize for piano playing, and he asked the pedagogue: "If I should win, would they let me study Chinese music in China with the money?" And the answer was: "No, they don't give prizes to idiots," which is still the attitude of many. But Mr. Grainger believes that the time will soon be ripe for the formation of a world-wide International Musical Society for the purpose of making all the world's music known to all the world by means of imported performances, phonograph and gramophone records and adequate notations, and so on, "until music-lovers everywhere could form some accurate conception of the as yet but dimly guessed multitudinous beauties of the world's contemporaneous total output of music."

"A NEW PROFESSION FOR WOMEN"

MR. EARL BARNES, in the August issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*, outlines a new profession for women which partakes of the nature of social service, affords a comfortable income if managed properly, and furnishes a most attractive field for the energies of college women and all women who have the bookish habit of mind. This "profession" is that of book-selling, but the kind of bookselling that includes missionary work to one's community.

There is a growing demand for books every year, and also a seeming increase of ignorance about books, judgment as to their content, their use, and their place in well-regulated homes. The majority of children that have come under the observation of persons competent to judge of their taste appreciate children's classics and innately love good literature. Parents often fail to build a foundation for a taste for good English by

giving children an overdose of the sentimental drivel that is offered in a certain class of children's books. The educated young woman bookseller should practise guardianship over her trade; she should find out what the community needs—what good book-friends will do for her patrons.

The young woman would have to know something about books as an industrial product, their paper, print and binding. She should be acquainted with the great publishing centers, organizations of publishers and booksellers, and the present machinery for book distribution. Catalogs and trade-lists should be familiar tools to her. She should also know something about the lore of the bibliophile concerning old editions, fine bindings, rare copies, and the like. It would be even more important for her to know the psychology of book buyers and the art of selling; and she must be prepared to make an intensive study of the mental and the social conditions of her community. Added to this she must know something of bookkeeping, banking and general business usage.

This field is open not only to those who can open and maintain a book-shop and can give all their time to their work, but also to students and in particular to teachers who wish to add to their wage by serving as the "connecting link between the publishers and their readers." In this way each school in the country could become a center for the distribution of literature and useful technical books, a lighthouse of learning for the old as well as for the young.

Where it is possible to open a store, other wares may be offered for sale.

Periodicals, music, photographs, and other art-products could be added to the stock, and the desire for social service could be met naturally by making the store a center where people could meet, where they could examine books and periodicals while waiting, and where public opinion could be formed. The store might also sell tickets for concerts and lectures; and the right woman could exercise a large influence in directing the public taste in these matters.

The real service to any community consists in altering erroneous states of mind. The teacher bookseller and the young college woman bookseller, with their knowledge of psychology, could hardly discover a wider avenue of actual usefulness than in directing, through the sale of good books, the formation of intellectual taste and the up-building of praiseworthy ethics in their immediate environments. There are two possible ways of handling book stock, according to Mr. Barnes:

If they had capital enough to invest outright, they could receive the usual bookseller's discount of approximately thirty-three and one third per cent.; if the publisher bore the risk of returns and damaged copies, then the retailer might receive a discount of something like 20 per cent.

Certain publishers offer much that is useful concerning book salesmanship to agents. The Booksellers' League of New York City has established a Booksellers' School, and lectures have been given on the "Making of a Book," "The Psychology of Salesmanship," and like subjects. Mr. B. W. Huebsch is now conducting a course in book-selling at the West Side Y. M. C. A. in New York. In Philadelphia the Girls' Evening School offered a course in book-selling under Mrs. L. W. Wilson; and in Cleveland there is prospect of this work being undertaken. Mr. Barnes calls attention to "The Leipzig School of Booksellers," founded in 1852. In 1913, 430 students were enrolled there.

In answer to the possible objections to this profession for women Mr. Barnes writes:

It would give young women of ability and devotion a wide range of useful exercise for their talents. As industrial agents they would be handling goods that would make for larger intelligence and social betterment. They could help individuals and the community at large. The work would be active and varied, but not too laborious; and they would be meeting men and women under conditions of freedom and security which might naturally lead to their largest possible life. Even if they did not, it would still be an interesting and useful life, independent of the caprice of directors, and admirably fitted for youth, middle age and old age.

The July number of the *Canadian Book News* published in part the interesting address delivered before the convention of the American Booksellers' Association, on the subject of "Books as Merchandise and Something More," by Franklin K. Mathiews, Chief Scout Librarian of the Boy Scouts of America. The address was an admirable plea for the development of the "bookstore as an institution in each community."

He asked communities to support their local bookseller and thus enable him to make a living that will free at least a part of his time to the consideration of his bookshop as a center of influence and education.

Walter A. Mursell writes in "Byways in Bookland" that booksellers must understand the psychology of the book-lover. The bookshop that lures the hungry mind is the shop where the prospective purchaser is given full freedom and never urged to buy.

It must not be one of those bookshops where black-coated, eagle-eyed, obsequious servitors stand at every corner and counter; who pounce upon you the moment you enter the door; who shadow you from shelf to shelf; who pursue you with unwelcome attentions into the second-hand department; who press all sorts of new volumes on your notice; who continually ask what it is you want and what they can do for you. I have not the moral courage to tell them that. I have not the least idea what I want; that I have come there to find out what I want; that the only thing they can do for me is to let me alone. And when by some unlucky chance I happen upon such a shop, I mark it in my black books and shun it forever. But there are other bookshops,—thanks be to heaven!—where they know their business. They leave you to prowling at large, to browse at leisure; and if you go away without making a purchase, they do not scowl, or lift a supercilious eyebrow, or follow you with suspicious glances, as if they thought you had a first edition secreted under your waistcoat; they simply smile and wish you "Good-day," and never even mention an equivalent to "Will ye no come back again?" They understand the peculiar and delicate psychology of the book-lover.

THE NEW BOOKS

WAR, PATRIOTISM, DEMOCRACY

READERS of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS have had the benefit, during the current year, of three important articles by Senator Beveridge, giving his observations in Germany, France, and England, respectively, on the journey that he recently made to those countries for the purpose of studying war-time conditions. He had exceptional opportunities to do this; for the several governments permitted him to visit the trenches and batteries in action, to see battles, to inspect hospitals and prison camps, and, in short, to gain such knowledge of the existing situation as it was possible for a non-combatant to acquire. To what excellent purpose Senator Beveridge used these opportunities our readers have already learned, and their opinion of his capability and keenness as an observer is likely to be confirmed by his new book, "What Is Back of the War?"¹ This volume is very far from being an abstract discussion of the underlying causes of the war, nor does it pretend to give an individual viewpoint. It is rather the result of conversations with representative men and women in Germany, France, and England,—administrators, authors, philosophers, Socialists, capitalists, laborers, peasants. Senator Beveridge acts as interpreter and sets down for our benefit the reasons why the people of these three countries are at war as the people themselves formulate and express them. It is a new kind of "war book."

"In a French Hospital"² gives us the notes of a nurse at the front, the intimate records of experiences in nursing the wounded in a specially privileged hospital under the care of the gentle Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. The short sketches present wonderful pictures of the courage of the wounded French soldiers and of the devotion of their attendants. It is all for France. That is the explanation of every soldier and of the attendants, from the humblest orderly to the head of the hospital. The author, M. Eydoux-Demians, writes that the French soldiers come back from the trenches "not with their courage drained, broken down, horror stricken, stunned,—not at all. They forget themselves to talk smilingly of the great hope in which we all share." The French text has been sympathetically translated by Betty Yeomans.

President John Grier Hibben, of Princeton University, has compiled four essays and addresses in a volume called "The Higher Patriotism."³ This higher patriotism President Hibben conceives

¹ What Is Back of the War? By Albert J. Beveridge. Bobbs-Merrill. 430 pp., ill. \$2.

² In a French Hospital. By M. Eydoux-Demians. Duffield. 170 pp. \$1.

³ The Higher Patriotism. By John Grier Hibben. Scribners. 72 pp. 60 cents.

as our duty to minister to the intellectual, moral and spiritual needs not of one country alone, but of the "world at large,"—to sacrifice the glory of conquest for the reign of universal peace.

Of "Preparedness and Peace," he writes: "Preparedness does not necessarily mean a nation in arms, or a nation inflamed by the false dreams of a militaristic destiny. This is conspicuously illustrated in the case of Switzerland." As to "Might or Right," the only right for which we may ethically use our might is the establishment of the Kingdom of God on earth. In "Martial Valor in Times of Peace," he refuses to entertain the idea that war is a biological necessity; that we "must descend into hell before we can begin to climb the steep ascent of Heaven." He calls upon the young men of the land to serve the purposes of peace,—to organize into "Young America" and use their valor even as did Sir Galahad.

One of the most attractive essays on universal peace, "War and Woman,"⁴ by Henry Clay Hansbrough, ex-United States Senator from North Dakota, argues that since man has failed ignominiously as a harmonizer, woman should take up the task. He suggests their organization throughout the world after the manner of the World Union of Women organized in Geneva, Switzerland, to battle "for just and permanent peace." Incidentally, he points out the advantages which he thinks we might gain by abandoning the Monroe Doctrine and forming an alliance with England and France.

Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi's "Common Sense Applied to Woman Suffrage,"⁵ has even greater significance to-day than when it was written, twenty years ago. It is presented in a new edition with an excellent biographical introduction by Frances Maule Björkman. This book is an expansion of the lecture delivered before the Committee on Woman Suffrage of the New York Constitutional Convention of 1894, of which Mr. Joseph H. Choate was chairman. Dr. Jacobi in the main offered the best argument that is put forward by advocates of equal suffrage to-day: To deny women the right to vote holds the nation back from perfecting the democracy that is its avowed ideal. She saw, with Walter Pater, that there is a "general consciousness, a permanent Common Sense, independent indeed of each one of us, but with which we are, each one of us, in communication"; and with Herbert Spencer that "the rights of women must stand or fall with those of men."

⁴ War and Woman. By Henry Clay Hansbrough. Duffield. 121 pp. \$1.

⁵ Common Sense Applied to Woman Suffrage. By Mary Putnam-Jacobi, M.D. Putnams. 236 pp. \$1.

ESSAYS AND STUDIES IN PHILOSOPHY, ETHICS, AND RELIGION

WOODROW WILSON'S essay, "When a Man Comes to Himself,"¹ is published in an attractive blue binding. The thesis of the essay is stated by the author in a few words: "Moral enthusiasm is not, uninstructed and of itself, a suitable guide to practicable and lasting reformation; and if the reform sought be the reformation of others as well as of himself, the reformer should look to it that he knows the true relation of his will to the wills he would change and guide." When this relation has been discovered a "man comes to himself."

Dr. Josiah Strong, in "The New World Religion,"² gives us a social interpretation of Christianity that will harmonize the material and the spiritual world. He calls upon the spiritually minded to begin a new crusade to rescue the vital teachings of Christ from their tomb and bring about the restoration of the kingdom of heaven on earth.

"The Religion of the Spirit in Modern Life,"³ by Horatio H. Dresser, is a philosophical discussion of spiritual matters that endeavors to determine the efficiency of various types of religion and interpret the Divine Presence in universal terms. A noble and inspiring effort to bring man nearer to God.

"Live and Learn,"⁴ by Washington Gladden, is a series of preachments that tell us how to learn to think, speak, see, hear, give, serve, win, and wait. The author says that they are suitable for all young people from seventeen to seventy, who have not finished their education. Those who have will find no use for it.

Selections from "The Scottish Philosophy of Common Sense,"⁵ edited by G. A. Johnston, lecturer in moral philosophy in the University of Glasgow, are published in "The Open Court Series of Classics of Science and Philosophy, No. 2." The contributions to philosophy of Thomas Reid, Adam Ferguson, James Beattie, and Dugald Stewart are analyzed and placed before the reader freed from stumbling blocks of technical verbiage. Reid's "Philosophy of Common Sense" originated as a protest against that of Hume. As Professor Johnston states, it was a refutation and criticism of Hume, via Locke.

The latest volume of the Studies in History issued by the Faculty of Columbia University is "The Establishment of Christianity and the Proscription of Paganism,"⁶ by Maude Aline

Huttmann, Ph.D., instructor in history at Barnard College. This brilliant dissertation describes the measures taken by the Emperor Constantine and his successors to proscribe and destroy the teachings of the cults of paganism, and also includes the laws regulating pagan worship preserved in the Codes of Justinian and Theodosius, and an outline of the political events of their reigns.

The student will find this book of great assistance in the study of the growth of Christianity. It is scholarly, yet not too technical, and free from personal or religious bias. The text is amply supplied with notes and lists of references. Miss Huttmann calls attention to the fact that in the evolution of races, from time to time, there sets in a syncretistic movement,—a mixing of the old and the new,—in order to preserve the balance of truth. Then a new faith emerges. Christianity was the alembic into which was poured the good of the old religions, in particular the idea of a man-god from the religion of Mithras, and the reverence for Apollo the Sun-god, as a divine and enlightening spirit.

President Wilson has said: "It is very difficult indeed for a man or for a boy who knows Scripture ever to get away from it. It haunts him like an old song. It follows him like the memory of his mother. It reminds him like the work of an old and revered teacher. It forms a part of the warp and woof of his life." A home and school edition of "Bible Stories and Poems" from creation to captivity is arranged to give young people a familiarity with the great stories of the Bible, and to serve as an introduction to Hebrew literature. The volume is exquisitely illustrated with Tissot pictures.

"Biblical Libraries,"⁷ by Ernest Cushing Richardson, is a remarkable book. The author has infused great vitality into his subject-matter and clothed his facts with a fresh mintage of phrases that fasten them in the reader's memory. Mr. Richardson gives us the history of libraries from 3400 B. C. to A. D. 150. In regard to the names of ancient libraries, he notes that, according to Diodorus, the library of Osymandas (Rameses II) bore this inscription over the portals, "The Hospital of the Soul."

"A Plea for Christian Science"⁸ and a challenge to its critics is a revised second edition of Charles Herman Lea's excellent work that explains the tenets of Christian Science teaching and defends their application. Mr. Lea emphasizes the great secret of Mary Baker Eddy's re-statement of the method of Christian healing,—She makes God a practical reality in the daily lives of men. Thus they become of one mind with Christ and are healed in accordance with their ability to realize the operation of spiritual law.

¹ When a Man Comes to Himself. By Woodrow Wilson. Harpers. 38 pp. 50 cents.

² The New World Religion. By Josiah Strong. Doubleday, Page. \$1.50.

³ The Religion of the Spirit in Modern Life. By Horatio H. Dresser. Putnams. 311 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Live and Learn. By Washington Gladden. Macmillan. 159 pp. \$1.

⁵ The Scottish Philosophy of Common Sense. By G. A. Johnston. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 267 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ The Establishment of Christianity and the Proscription of Paganism. By Maude A. Huttmann. Longmans, Green. 257 pp. \$2.

⁷ Bible Stories and Poems. Bible Selections Committee. 351 pp., ill. 35 cents.

⁸ Biblical Libraries. By Ernest Cushing Richardson. Princeton University Press. 252 pp. \$1.25.

⁹ A Plea for Christian Science. By Charles H. Lea. J. M. Dent, London, Eng. 230 pp. \$1.

ESSAYS, CRITICISM, PORTRAITURE

MR. FRANK HARRIS has given us a series of remarkable studies of famous men in his volume of reminiscence and criticism, "Contemporary Portraits,"¹—a book that records his impressions of Carlyle, Renan, Oscar Wilde, Robert Browning, Meredith, Whistler, Swinburne, Verlaine, Anatole France, Richard Burton, and others. These sketches give not only the most vivid word portraits of their subjects ever published in this country, but they also take first rank as creative interpretations of genius. Mr. Harris' critical art is dramatic. He shapes a stage, sets the scenery, and materializes his man, even to his fustian or velvet: If you liken his portraits to actual painting, they are Whistlerian "arrangements," accented with Mr. Harris' signature. If it is a strange Carlyle that he brings to us,—a Carlyle whose gloomy, futile splendors hang upon the peg of Puritanism, we find familiarity in his study of George Meredith. Whistler comes to us as the fine master of pigment and the phrase that he really was; and the limning of Wilde is perhaps the best ever done. The tributes to John Davidson and Richard Middleton,—those majestic suicides,—beyond presenting their lives and personalities, pour forth the bitterness felt by their friends over the neglect and penury they suffered in their lives. Chatterton, Keats, Shelley, Davidson, and Middleton,—all hounded and unrewarded in their lives,—is not this conclusive evidence, he writes, that we do not know "when the gods arrive"?

The most searching analysis of any literary work is given in Mr. Harris' comment on Ernest Renan's "Life of Jesus," and his "St. Paul"; the impression most cryptic and naive in its simplicity, that of Verlaine; the portrait most concerned with present events, that of Anatole France. It is interesting to note a remark of France's previous to the War. He said: "We French have an ideal of wise and moderate living; we have already the best ordered house in Europe. That is what exasperates us about the German menace. We want to put our house in order, to realize our high ideal of social justice, but we are perpetually hindered by that barbarous menace on our frontier."

"Boon: The Mind of the Race, The Wild Asses of the Devil, and the Last Trump,"² is the latest contribution to book enigmas. It is a series of delightful humorous, witty, and satirical sketches of everything and everybody under the sun, connected by a slender thread of serious intention. Mr. H. G. Wells evidently hides behind the name of the supposititious author,—*"Mr. Reginald Bliss"*. . . . The structure of the work reminds the reader of that gift foolery of a box, which when opened reveals another box, and so on until the last is discovered,—a box no larger than a thimble which is quite empty. In the case of "Boon: The Mind of the Race," one finds the "Mind" beneath the author's persiflage and satire, rattling about like a pea. Perhaps this way of presenting truth is according to Boon's idea of conveying all spiritual truths out of a

dark void. The particular truth of the book seems to be the encouragement of the conscious general thinking of the race together,—the organizing of a great orchestra of formative thought from which no instrument can be spared without ruining the harmony,—this general, definite, focalized thought to be the "word made manifest" for our planet.

The story of "The Last Trump" relates that two young men found in a dingy shop in Caledonia Market the trumpet through which the "Last Trump" was to be blown. They took it from the dealer and made ineffectual attempts to blow it. At last one of them tied the mouth-piece to a foot blow-pipe and worked the foot-treadle. There was an explosion, a shock, and the trumpet vanished. But not before a muffled sound had traversed the earth and for a single instant awakened the living and the dead with a burning glimpse of the "Lord God and All His Powers." The vision did not affect humanity greatly. For the most part they were of the mind of the old flower-seller,—*"She saw,—and Mary,—she saw it. But Lord, it don't mean nothing."*

As for the "Wild Asses of the Devil," it is manifestly every good literary man's duty to go hunting after those "wild asses" and see that they are safely herded back on the Plutonian meadows where they belong. Mr. Bliss,—née Wells,—says, plainly enough, that they are militarists.

Dr. Paul Carus has prepared a most satisfying life of Goethe³ that interprets phases of Goethe's life and philosophy that seem to have been neglected. While there is no attempt to show us the poet as a "philosopher proper," he brings out the fact that all of his work takes shape as segments of a circle around the central point of Goethe's cosmic envisioning of the universe, and his extraordinary perception of its entire duplication in the microcosm of the human soul. Because of this philosophical world-conception, Goethe has remained one of the most fascinating and baffling figures in all literature. Dr. Carus considers his ancestry, the immediate facts of his life, his relation to other men of his time, and to the various women whose names have become linked with his fame; his personality, philosophy, literature, and criticism; also, he gives an analysis of "Faust," and copious extracts from his epigrams and poems. The volume has the exquisite perfection of good workmanship, and is illustrated with 335 cuts.

"K'ung Fu Tze,"⁴ a dramatic poem, by Dr. Carus, dramatizes the teachings of Confucius. In a brilliant foreword, he gives the summary of the Chinese world-conception and interesting historical data concerned with the rise of Confucianism. He writes of the Chinese: "They are an ethical nation. They love to ponder on ethics and in actual life are known to be unusually reliable . . . this is true not only of the big business men but of the cooly." Confucius is the teacher of moral good will, and is the "representative type of Chinese manhood in China's classical past."

¹ Contemporary Portraits. By Frank Harris. Mitchell Kennerley. 346 pp. \$2.

² Boon: The Race Mind. By Reginald Bliss. (Intro. by H. G. Wells.) Doran. 345 pp. \$1.35.

³ Goethe. By Paul Carus. The Open Court Publishing Co. 357 pp., ill. \$3.

⁴ K'ung Fu Tze. By Paul Carus. The Open Court Publishing Co. 72 pp. 50 cents.

AMERICAN HISTORY

"A HISTORY of Travel in America,"¹ by Seymour Dunbar, is a marked instance of the interest that may be imparted to a work by the use of original, first-hand materials and sources of information in place of the ordinary and more accessible channels that are so frequently followed in the compiling of histories and various forms of text-books. In each of his four volumes Mr. Dunbar has gone back for his facts to contemporary sources, and not content with exploiting these in text, he has built up a remarkable scheme of illustration which is consistently based on the work of contemporary artists. In no other history of which we are aware can there be found so complete and satisfactory a presentation, in both text and pictures, of the story of American travel and transportation. Perhaps our historians have not fully grasped the importance of travel in the development of our country. It is certainly true that it has meant more to the American people than to any other nation in history. As Mr. Dunbar treats it the term travel connotes practically the whole social movement from colonial times to the completion of the last transcontinental railroad. His work is really a record of American migration, including the settlement of the Mississippi Valley and the Pacific Coast States. Such a record could only have been compiled by the expenditure of an enormous amount of well-directed energy. The product, as it stands, is a credit to American scholarship, as well as a distinct contribution to historical science, while its literary and artistic charm makes it a delight to the general reader. All the methods and adjuncts of travel and transportation

that have been employed from pioneer days to the present, including canoes, steamboats, stage-coaches, pack trains, railroads and canals, are described in detail, and the pictures give to the reader of the present day a realistic conception of the appliances used by our forefathers.

Of the three monographs contained in Volume XXXII of Johns Hopkins' "Studies,"² Professor Trexler's account of slavery in Missouri, with particular reference to the economic features of the system, is perhaps the most noteworthy, both on its own account and as suggestive of further historical research in other slave States.

In the current series of the Johns Hopkins "Studies,"³ the first two monographs are exclusively economic,—*"Money and Transportation in Maryland 1720-1765"* and *"The Financial Administration of the Colony of Virginia."*

In the series of "Studies in History, Economics and Public Law," edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, important recent issues are *"Reconstruction in Georgia,"* by C. Mildred Thompson; *"The Review of American Colonial Legislation by the King in Council,"* by Elmer Beecher Russell; and *"The Sovereign Council of New France"* (a study in Canadian constitutional history), by Raymond Du Bois Cahall. These university studies are each year developing new fields of historical research and treating in detail and with proper perspective many topics heretofore neglected or superficially discussed.

OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS

"WILD Bird Guests,"⁴ by Ernest Harold Baynes, has a distinctly practical purpose. Mr. Baynes is interested in telling people how to entertain the birds as guests, and to that end he includes in his book chapters on the organization and management of bird clubs, giving a fascinating account of what has been done in Meriden, N. H., his home town, which has become known as "The Bird Village," as a result of following the methods of attracting wild birds which are set forth in his book. There are also chapters on the destruction of birds, their economic and their esthetic values, and suggestions for dealing with their enemies. If these suggestions could be put in practise throughout the country the problem of American wild-bird conservation would be speedily solved.

Although many books have been published within recent years on the general subject of forest conservation, there have been very few detailed accounts of the actual work performed by officials of the forest service in the field. Mr. William P. Lawson has thought it worth while, in *"The Log of a Timber Cruiser,"*⁵ to relate his personal experience as a government forester in southern New Mexico, and he has made his narrative so vivid that any young man who is contemplating government forestry work as a career can probably get from Mr. Lawson's book a clearer and more definite notion of what he will be called upon to do and how he will have to do it than from any other book in print. The actuality of Mr. Lawson's descriptions is vouched for by Gifford Pinchot.

¹ A History of Travel in America. 4 Volumes. By Seymour Dunbar. Bobbs-Merrill. 1529 pp., ill. \$10.

² Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Volume XXXII: Jurisdiction on American Building Trades. By Nathaniel Ruggles Whitney. 182 pp. Slavery in Missouri 1804-1865. By Harrison Anthony Trexler. 259 pp. Colonial Trade of Maryland 1689-1715. By Margaret Shove Morriss. 157 pp. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. \$3.50.

³ Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Volume XXXIII: Money and Transportation in Maryland 1720-1765. By Clarence P. Gould. 176 pp. The Financial Administration of the Colony of Virginia. By Percy Scott Flippin. 95 pp. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. \$1.75.

⁴ Reconstruction in Georgia: Economic, Social, 1865-1872. By C. Mildred Thompson. Columbia University Press, 418 pp. \$1.

⁵ The Review of American Colonial Legislation by the King in Council. By Elmer Beecher Russell. Columbia University Press. 227 pp. \$1.75.

⁶ The Sovereign Council of New France. By Raymond Du Bois Cahall. Columbia University Press. 274 pp. \$2.25.

⁷ Wild Bird Guests. How to Entertain Them. By Ernest Harold Baynes. Dutton. 326 pp., ill. \$2.

⁸ The Log of a Timber Cruiser. By William Pinkney Lawson. Duffield. 214 pp. \$1.50.

ART, ANCIENT AND MODERN

"THE Need for Art in Life"¹ brings us an inspiring collection of lectures by Mr. I. B. Stoughton Holborn. It arrests the reader's attention like a man standing in a crowded street pointing steadfastly at the sky. Through the ardent vision of the author we perceive that because of the selfishness and meanness of that part of life which ministers to practical purposes, we miss seeing the illimitable expanse of art and beauty which constitutes an end in itself. The new morality, as Mr. Holborn sees it, must be a return to the Greek conception and expression of that physical, mental balance that frees the immortal spirit of man to its ultimate glory, which can be truly expressed as "holiness unto the Lord."

The Princeton Monographs in Art and Archaeology are notable contributions to the literature of research. The last volume issued is "The Lost Mosaics and Frescoes of Rome,"² a study prepared by Professor C. R. Morey, of those copies of lost frescoes which once decorated Roman churches, and are now destroyed or so changed by restoration as to bear little resemblance to the originals. The cuts of the frescoes are taken from two folio volumes *Mosaici Antichi* in the Cardinal Albani collection which George the Third purchased in 1762, and which now forms a part of the King's Library at Windsor Castle. With two exceptions the copies belong to the first

period of the classic renaissance of the 12th and 13th centuries. The material is presented in a delightful manner; the minute descriptions of artistic detail will please every student of Roman Art.

One of the by-products, so to speak, of the "See America First" movement is a volume entitled "What Pictures to See in America,"³ by Lorinda Munson Bryant. This is a book that should be owned by everyone who has the leisure to journey across the continent and to stop a few days at important cities. It contains chapters on practically all the important art collections of the country, and there are more of these than most of us are aware of. Furthermore, the traveler might easily pass many of them by were he not informed in advance of their location. So far as we know the attempt has never before been made to tell in a single volume what famous paintings may be found in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Pittsburgh, Syracuse, Rochester, Buffalo, Toledo, Detroit, Muskegon, Chicago, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, New Orleans, Fort Worth, St. Louis, Sacramento, and San Francisco. After glancing through this volume, with its 237 reproductions of famous paintings, even the art lover who is familiar with the European galleries may conclude that there are American collections worth visiting.

STANDARD LITERATURE

"THE Evolution of Literature,"⁴ a valuable manual of comparative literature which students can hardly afford to be without, is now offered in a popular-priced edition that places it within the reach of everyone. Its author, Professor A. S. Mackenzie, sees literature as a changing social phenomenon, governed by the "Law of Responsiveness," that is "other conditions being equal, literary form and content vary directly with the orientation of mental responsiveness in a given community." He delves down into the customs of primitive peoples to find the inoculation of soil that made fertile the fields of modern literature. The content of the book enlarges upon this general advice: If vitality alone gives permanent value literary to art, this vitality springs from the relationship between literature and humanity; and if we fail to discern this fact in all its bearings, we shall mistake the spurious for the

real. Every aspiring writer should possess this remarkable work.

Thomas Nelson and Sons, Bible Publishers for over fifty years, have added "The Barchester Towers Novels"⁵ of Anthony Trollope to the "New Century Library of Standard Authors." These volumes are a delight to the bibliophile. They are bound in pocket size in genuine leather and printed on India paper. The type is large and clear and the illustrations are in excellent taste. Nearly all the works of the standard English novelists and poets, also Dumas and Hugo, and several American poets and novelists, can be obtained in uniform edition.

The compilers claim for the specimens included in "College Readings in English Prose"⁶ that they represent "a greater range in subject-matter, in typical forms, and in levels of style than other compilations of the same kind."

¹ The Need of Art in Life. By I. B. Stoughton Holborn. G. Arnold Shaw. 116 pp. 75 cents.

² Lost Mosaics and Frescoes of Rome. By Charles R. Morey. Princeton University Press. 70 pp. \$2.

³ What Pictures to See in America. By Lorinda M. Bryant. Lane. 356 pp., ill. \$2.

⁴ The Evolution of Literature. By A. S. Mackenzie. Crowell. 440 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ The Small House at Allington. Barchester Towers Novels. By A. Trollope. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 717 pp. \$1.25 per vol.

⁶ College Readings in English Prose. Selected and edited by Franklin William Scott and Jacob Zeitlin. Macmillan. 663 pp. \$1.25.

HOUSE BUILDING, DECORATION AND FURNISHING

IN "The Small House for a Moderate Income"¹

Mr. Ekin Wallick offers various suggestions towards the building of suburban and country cottages of types in keeping with the present-day mode of living in America. Naturally, the styles of architecture that he recommends are as far as possible removed from the influences of the Victorian Era so-called. The titles of some of his chapters will serve to suggest the nature of the subject matter: "The Colonial Clapboard House," "An American Home in the English Style," "A Dutch Colonial House," "An English Plaster House," "The Half Timbered House," "The Cozy House," "A Country House of Brick and Plaster." The author's discussions of the "Four Thousand Dollar House," "The Homelike House," "The Inexpensive House," "The Comfortable House," "The Economical House," and "Technical Points in House Building" are specially practical and helpful to the intending builder. The illustrations of the book, half in color and half in black and white, are distinct aids to the text.

"The Decoration and Furnishing of Apartments,"² by B. Russell Herts, is a new departure in books on house decoration, and one for which all dwellers in apartments will be fervently grateful. It suggests means and ways of beautifying apartments from the humble two-room suite

up to the elaborate duplex and triplex, and contains forty color prints and photographs of the author's work. Mr. Herts endeavors to furnish the details of artistic decoration in combination with a grounding in the knowledge of the principles of decoration, which once gained, all the rest will follow as a matter of evolution of artistic theory. He shows us that in decoration we must worship neither the old nor the new, but only that which is truly beautiful. The student of decorative art as well as the clumsiest amateur will not fail to note the rhythm of Mr. Herts' suggestions and examples,—a rhythm that subtly relates itself to space and light and shade, to angles and proportion, as definitely as the modulations of music relate to the theme.

For the persons who desire artistic furnishings, but are unable to expend a large sum of money, Ekin Wallick has written a practical handbook about house furnishings and decorations,—*"Inexpensive Furnishings in Good Taste."*³ The book is profusely illustrated with views of rooms completely furnished and many cuts of artistic pieces of furniture that can be purchased at moderate prices. "Attractive Wall Treatments," "Lamps and Lampshades," "Willow Furniture," and "The Odd Things Which Make the Living Room Comfortable" are some of the chapter headings.

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

Books Relating to the War

Collected Diplomatic Documents Relating to the Outbreak of the European War. Doran. 561 pp. \$1.

All the official correspondence made public by different European governments relating to the outbreak of the present war. This material was first published in the United States by the *New York Times* and is now collected for the first time in a single volume carefully indexed. It is explained in the preface that this volume has been compiled not in order to excite new attention, but rather for the benefit of students of history and politics. Only those documents which the various governments have laid before the world as authentic records of events are included in this publication. Commentaries, even when coming from the governments themselves, have been disregarded.

The Campaign of 1914 in France and Belgium. By G. H. Perris. Holt. 395 pp. \$1.50.

The story of the war on the western front from

¹ *The Small House for a Moderate Income.* By Ekin Wallick. New York: Hearst's International Library Company. 96 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² *The Decoration and Furnishing of Apartments.* By B. Russell Herts. Putnam's. 190 pp., ill. \$3.50.

³ *Inexpensive Furnishings in Good Taste.* By Ekin Wallick. Hearst's International Library Co. 128 pp. \$1.25.

the siege of Liège to the close of the first fighting in Flanders. The author, who was special correspondent in France of the London *Daily Chronicle*, adds fresh information regarding the plans of campaign and the more important engagements, and describes the destroyed towns.

The Soul of Germany. By Thomas F. A. Smith. Doran. 354 pp. \$1.25.

A study of the German people made by an Englishman, who, during the years 1902-1914, was English lecturer in a German university (Erlangen), and, by reason of his position, had unusual opportunities to know the life and sentiments of the people among whom he lived.

Punch Cartoons of the Great War. Doran. 216 pp. \$1.50.

"Punch Cartoons of the Great War" contains about a hundred full-page cartoons reprinted from the famous London weekly, the work of Samboorne, Raven-Hill, Bernard Partridge, Townsend, and others, together with some smaller comic pictures on various phases of the war as they appear to Englishmen. The cartoons are grouped under nine headings, the first chapter dealing with the period before the war and going back to Tenniel's famous "Dropping the Pilot" cartoon, and others depicting Kaiser Wilhelm.

Sociology, Economics, Politics

Outlines of Sociology. By Frank W. Blackmar and John Lewis Gillin. Macmillan. 586 pp. \$2.

This volume in the series of "Social Science Text-Books," edited by Professor R. T. Ely, is intended primarily for the use of teachers of sociology in the colleges and universities, while, at the same time, it gives a good survey of the field for the benefit of the general reader. The authors are experienced teachers of the subject and they have brought their book well up to date in every respect.

The Japanese Problem in the United States. By H. A. Millis. Macmillan. 334 pp. \$1.50.

Professor Millis, who holds the chair of economics in the University of Kansas, made a personal investigation of the conditions in California, Oregon, and Washington, as well as in Utah and Colorado. The results were embodied in a report made to the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. The book does not pretend to offer a final solution of the problem, but it presents very clearly the essential facts of the situation and considers intelligently and dispassionately some of the suggestions that have been offered with a view to remedying various forms of discontent. Its authoritative character may be inferred from the fact that Professor Millis served five years ago as agent in charge of the investigation made by the Immigration Commission in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States.

The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861. By Carter Godwin Woodson. Putnam. 454 pp. \$2.

Very little has heretofore been written on this particular phase of negro history. Most people are inclined to assume that virtually all the education the colored people of this country have received dates from the Civil War. Dr. Woodson, on the other hand, found that some of the most interesting episodes in the history of the race preceded that war, and the efforts of American negroes for enlightenment under the most adverse conditions are as interesting as anything in the history of the race.

The Negro Races. Vol. II. By Jerome Dowd. Neale. 310 pp. \$2.50.

This is the second volume of Professor Dowd's series of sociological studies from the standpoint of race. For purposes of exposition he has divided Africa into separate economic zones, which, when looked at broadly, reveal distinct characteristics and exercises a determining influence upon the social and psychological life of the people.

Income. By Scott Nearing. Macmillan. 238 pp. \$1.25.

Professor Nearing gives in this volume a succinct presentation of economic facts as contrasted with theory. He is interested in ascertaining what division of any given product of labor is made among the members of the community, that is to say, how is the created value apportioned among the laborers, the managers, and the capitalists?

The Wealth and Income of the People of the United States. By Wilford Isbell King. Macmillan. 278 pp. \$1.50.

The same question is raised in Dr. King's book, which emphasizes the changes that have taken place in the social wealth of the American people,—land, forests, mineral resources,—and discusses the distribution of wealth and income among families.

Sanitation in Panama. By William Crawford Gorgas. Appletons. 298 pp., ill. \$2.

In this volume General Gorgas tells in non-technical language the story of how yellow fever was eliminated at Panama, and other tropical diseases that have long reigned there brought under control, until to-day the isthmus, once known as one of the most unhealthy localities in the world, is frequently alluded to as a health resort.

The New American Government and Its Work. By James T. Young. Macmillan. 663 pp. \$2.25.

There are plenty of books to tell us what our government is,—on paper,—but those that tell us what it is actually doing are less numerous. Professor Young, of the Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, accomplishes both tasks in a single volume. He gives fully as much space to the work of the government as to its form or structure, and this, of course, requires him to give special attention to government regulation of business, to social legislation, to judicial decisions interpreting essential public powers, and to the recent rapid development of executive leadership. Perhaps the crowning feature of the book is Professor Young's presentation of the government as a means of service.

American State Constitutions. By James Quayle Deale. Ginn. 308 pp. \$1.40.

Oddly enough, it is said that this is the first published book devoted entirely to the significance of State constitutions in our policy. It should be in the hands of every member of the convention at Albany.

Report of the Efficiency and Economy Committee, State of Illinois. 1051 pp.

This volume contains valuable reports by professors in the University of Illinois and others on the various activities of the Illinois State government. It throws important side lights on State administration in general.

The Cry for Justice. Edited by Upton Sinclair. John C. Winston Co., Phila. 891 pp., ill. \$2.

"The Cry for Justice, an Anthology of the Literature of Social Protest," edited by Upton Sinclair, with an introduction by Jack London, offers classified quotations selected from twenty-five languages, of the writings of philosophers, poets, social reformers, novelists and others who have raised their voices against social injustice. Mr. London writes in the preface that this is the "first gathering together of the body of the literature and art of the humanist thinkers of the world." This remarkable book is divided into seventeen sections with the following titles:

Toil; The Chasm; The Outcast; Out of the Depths; Revolt; Martyrdom; Jesus; The Church; The Voice of the Ages; Mammon; Humor; The Poet; Socialism; War; Country; Children; The New Day. Short biographical notes give desirable information desired about the various authors represented. The reader will find gathered together in this anthology much of the nobleness that has surged through the minds of men who were aware of the misery and unfairness and suffering that existed in the world. It is a new world's history, and a vision of hope for the world's future. It is the sustained voice of Democracy crying in the wilderness of human woe: "Prepare ye the way of the Lord." Mr. Sinclair writes: "If the material in this volume means to you, the reader, what it has meant to me, you will live with it, love it, sometimes weep with it, many times pray with it, yearn and hunger with it and above all resolve with it."

Labor in Irish History. By James Connolly. Maunsell & Co., Dublin. 216 pp. 25 cents.

"Labor in Irish History," a book written by James Connolly and published last year in Dublin, gives a retrospective view of the people of Ireland who make up what the author calls "the unconquered working class." Two propositions are placed before the reader: First, that in any country the progress of the "fight for national liberty of any subject must perforce keep pace with the progress of the struggle for liberty of the most subject class in that nation." Secondly that the Irish middle-class, with its trade affiliations with English capital, has become so corrupted that it cannot be trusted to advance the cause of Irish patriotism, therefore "The Irish working class remain as the incorruptible inheritors of the fight for freedom in Ireland." One may not agree with Mr. Connolly, but his book is tersely written and presents a readable history of the Irish working class, and suggestions for the transformation of Ireland into a social democracy.

Chants Communal. Horace Traubel. H. & C. Boni, New York. 194 pp. \$1.

A second edition of Horace Traubel's "Chants Communal" brings to our attention a splendid book of rhythmic prose that interprets Democracy, and carries a message to every man and woman who lives in the hope that we may sometime realize the ideal of,—liberty, fraternity, and equality.

The Drama

Shakespeare Study Programs. By Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clark. Richard Badger. 150 pp. \$1.

Excellent arrangements for the study of the nine Tragedies. The Comedies are issued in uniform style.

Shakespeare's Principal Plays, edited by J. W. Cunliffe, Tucker Brooke and H. N. MacCracken. Century. 957 pp. \$2.

An admirable example of modern bookmaking. The popular Shakespearean plays,—twenty in

all,—arranged in a single volume with illuminating notes by the editors. The stage history of each play is given and an excellent account of recent performances. The text is based on that of the First Folio, and the original stage directions are retained wherever possible.

How to See a Play. By Richard Burton. Macmillan. 217 pp. \$1.25.

Sensible advice as to the method of obtaining the most entertainment and instruction possible for the price of a theater seat. A guide to correct appreciation of the emotional, artistic and intellectual values of the drama.

Robert Frank. By Sigurd Ibsen. Translated by Marcia Hargis Janson. Scribners. 192 pp. \$1.25.

A strong idealistic drama dealing with Syndicalism in France. A young statesman attempts to end the strife between capital and labor with tragic results.

The Continental Drama of To-Day. By Barrett H. Clark. Holt. 252 pp. \$1.35.

An instructive book that will serve as a guide to the study of the plays of Ibsen, Björnsen, Strindberg, Tolstoy, Gorky, Tchekoff, Andreyeff, Hauptmann, Sudermann, Wedekind, Schnitzler, von Hoffmoustaal, Becque, Maeterlinck, Rostand, Brieux, Hervieu, Giacosa, Dormay, Lemaitre, Laedon, D'Annunzio, Echegaray, and Galdos.

British and American Drama of To-Day. By Barrett H. Clark. Holt. 315 pp. \$1.60.

"British and American Drama of To-Day" has been prepared by Mr. Barrett Clark as a companion volume to "The Continental Drama of To-Day." The student who familiarizes himself thoroughly with the essentials of dramatic technique, the analysis of structure, the suggestions, and bibliographies in these volumes will have gained the necessary knowledge to perceive the trend of the modern movement, and place correct valuation upon the contributions of the various dramatists. Professor Clark analyzes and gives study outlines of the works of Pinero, Jones, Wilde, Shaw, Barker, Hankin, Chambers, Davies, Galsworthy, Synge, Lady Gregory, Gillette, Fitch, Mackaye, Thomas, Sheldon, Walter, and others.

The Photodrama. By Henry Albert Phillips. Larchmont, N. Y.: The Stanhope Dodge Company. 221 pp. \$2.

A concise hand-book for those who are anxious to write moving-picture scenarios. It insists upon the necessity of giving dignity and art to our moving-picture plays in order that they may become an agency for good.

Photoplay Making. By Howard T. Dimick. Ridgewood, N. J.: The Editor Company. 103 pp. \$1.

Nineteen chapters of practical advice about the making and the production of photo-plays, in combination with an analysis of the dramatic principles that govern this type of play. This book is especially recommended to those who wish to undertake directing the production of moving-pictures.

Public Speaking

A Complete Guide to Public Speaking. By Grenville Kleiser. Funk & Wagnalls. 655 pp. \$5.

A veritable encyclopedia on the subject is Grenville Kleiser's "Complete Guide to Public Speaking." Numerous are the books available to those who aspire to shine in this field, but here is a rich compendium of full and valuable extracts from a host of ancient and modern authorities, and from the world's masters of the art of oratory, touching on every phase of the subject. The matter is arranged alphabetically, and one may thus read by topic, or with equal profit go regularly through the book from the interesting introductory article on the "Art of Public Speaking," by Mr. Kleiser, to the useful and ample index at the end. The volume is a unique and valuable thesaurus on public speaking in all its branches.

The Art of Public Speaking. By J. Berg Esenwein and Dale Carnegie. The Home Correspondence School, Springfield, Mass.

A course of instruction that builds up, from the fundamental principles of oratory, a practical process for acquiring fluency and power in public speaking. Questions, exercises, and speeches for study and practise are interspersed with the text. The mystery of the technique of the finished orator is analyzed in such a way as to give hope to even the most blundering beginner. Dr. Esenwein was for nine years editor of *Lippincott's Magazine*, and is well known as a teacher and writer. Mr. Carnegie has charge of the instruction in public speaking in the Y. M. C. A. Schools of New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore.

Stories

The Great Tradition. By Katherine F. Gerould. Scribners. 353 pp. \$1.35.

The second volume of Katherine Fullerton Gerould's short stories includes "The Great Tradition," "Leda and the Swan," "The Miracle," "The Dominant Strain," and others of her finest work. These stories are considered to be typical examples of the best short stories written by American authors. Mrs. Gerould's technic has been compared to that of Edith Wharton. There is the same restraint, the identical dry-point-etching method of analysis; and if there is a flaw in the result, it is a kind of bloodlessness, a thinness that imprisons the imagination. In this Mrs. Gerould differs from Conrad. She possesses a somber, brooding imagination that after the fashion of the great Polish novelist veils the merest trifle in mystery; but Conrad liberates the mind of the reader to the spaciousness of the universe.

A Kingdom of Two. By Helen Albee. Macmillan. 322 pp. \$1.50.

One will remember Thoreau when one reads "A Kingdom of Two," a romance of country life. Its author, Helen Albee, has written of a home,—a house and a garden and all that in them is,—a chronicle of happiness, and of the joy the seeker finds who is willing to sit at the feet of Nature and learn her secrets. The book ends with a wedding made possible by love and thoughtfulness, and just before the last pages one comes

upon a picture of "the house," its long, low lines draped with clinging green.

Education

The Practical Conduct of Play. By Henry S. Curtis. Macmillan. 330 pp., ill. \$2.

In 1906 when the Playground Association of America was organized, less than twenty cities were maintaining playgrounds. So rapidly did the play movement develop that in 1913, 642 cities were conducting playgrounds either under paid or volunteer caretakers. New York City alone has spent \$17,000,000 on its play systems during the past fifteen years. In other words, play has attained a recognized place in school curricula and has become a serious business. Mr. Henry S. Curtis, who has had sixteen years experience in the playground movement, during which he was a general director of playgrounds in New York City, supervisor of playgrounds in Washington, D. C., and Secretary of the Playground Association of America, has written a book on "The Practical Conduct of Play." He gives an account of the play movement, treats of playground construction, equipment, games, training of play directors, programs, play festivals, miscellaneous activities and discipline. In short, the volume is a thorough summing up of the subject of public playgrounds by an authority in this field.

Ears, Brain and Fingers. By Howard Wells. Boston: Oliver Ditson Company. 97 pp. \$1.25.

An excellent text-book for piano teachers and their pupils, that endeavors to unite in teaching and in technic three essentials,—a trained mind, cultivated musical hearing and unfettered use of the fingers.

College Life: Its Conditions and Problems. By Maurice Garland Fulton. Macmillan. 524 pp. \$1.25.

A selection of essays by college presidents and teachers, for use in college composition courses.

The College Course and the Preparation for Life. By Albert Parker Fitch. Houghton Mifflin. 227 pp. \$1.25.

Wise and inspiring reflections by the president of Andover Theological Seminary on topics that should interest every college student in the land.

A Guide to Good English. By Robert Palfrey Utter. Harpers. 203 pp. \$1.20.

A peculiarly helpful book for the literary craftsman, based on a number of years' experience in handling manuscript intended for publication and that which is written in college classes.

Little Folks Plays of American Heroes: George Washington. By Mary H. Wade. Richard Badger. 91 pp. 60 cents.

This series has been written with the intention of presenting in simple form the heroes of successive periods of our national life in a way that will enable the child to impersonate the characters and enter into the thoughts of great men. The volumes now ready are: "George Washington," "Abraham Lincoln," "Benjamin Franklin," "Ulysses S. Grant."

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—STREET IMPROVEMENT BONDS

THE lure of high interest rates is one to which the average investor succumbs at some time in his investing experience. Normally a yield of over $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on a bond, or of more than 6 or $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on a stock, means insecurity of principal. Actually, however, it need be no evidence of fault in either stock or bond, but a temporary adjustment of rates to unusual conditions. There are to-day, owing to the war in Europe, dozens of the choicest railroad bonds that return $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 5 per cent. and many in no danger of default that yield from 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Also there are stocks of both railroads and industrials on which the return is from 6 to 7 per cent., with no question of the ability to continue regular dividends. Low returns on securities are not an absolute guarantee of safety. Take the decline in British consols of from 20 to 25 points in the decade before the war, as a case in point. This had been one of the lowest yielding issues in the market-place and was held by the most conservative investors, but nowhere has the shrinkage of principal been greater than in this "premier security."

High interest rates are oftentimes sectional. They reflect the demand and supply of capital in a given geographical area. The return on guaranteed real-estate mortgages in New York City is only $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 per cent., whereas in the Northwest property of equal value would produce a return of from 5 to 6 per cent., and in the South, the Southwest, and on the Pacific slope the yield would be from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 per cent. Local conditions, therefore, are a factor of no little importance in determining the price of capital as well as the safety of principal.

This leads up to the central point in this month's discussion of investment securities. So many inquiries have come to this office regarding a relatively new type of investment, viz., street-improvement bonds, that it has been thought well to indicate the main features surrounding such bonds and the means of determining whether individual issues are good or bad. This type of bonds has been floated in the past in different parts of the United States, though the widest distribution of them has occurred west of the

Mississippi River. There have been issues that turned out most unfortunately for the buyers. In Chicago there are now quite a large number in default. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, has experienced considerable trouble, and some of her 6-per-cent. street-improvements have recently been offered in Eastern markets on a 10-per-cent. basis. Bonds of several of the important Puget Sound cities are also offered at a discount, and defaults are recorded on street-improvement issues in quite a number of rapidly growing sections of the West and Southwest.

It is only fair to give both sides of the story in connection with these bonds. If the total street-improvement bonds issued throughout the country were to be placed in a column alongside the bonds actually defaulted on, it would be seen that the percentage of failures to successes is small. The exceptions give opportunity to analyze the weak points of street-improvement bonds and to indicate how to avoid purchase of issues that may be full of trouble, for if proper investigation of individual bonds is made and good business judgment is exercised, the investor ought to be in possession of a sound bond and one returning him between 6 and 7 per cent., the latter rate predominating in California, where this type of issue is just now most in vogue.

Distinguished from Municipals

It should be stated at once that street-improvement bonds are not in any sense municipal bonds. Whenever a representation is made to a bond-buyer contrary to this statement he may have reason to suspect the retailer of the bond. A municipal bond assumes municipal liability. There is none in street-improvement bonds. The bonds are a municipal obligation, however, and principal and interest are paid at the office of the city treasurer, which office collects the taxes applying on the improvements which are the foundation of these bonds. The only lien taking precedence on the property involved over these bonds is a lien for general taxes. The accepted high character of the bonds is indicated from the fact that in California they are legal for savings-bank investment

and everywhere are exempt from Federal, State, county, and city taxes.

More than twenty years ago the California Legislature passed a bond act which is supplementary to the Vrooman Act, under which street-improvement bonds are sanctioned. This act provides for payment of improvement work on the assessment plan. It is only after the work is finished that assessments are levied. The apportionment is on the basis of so much per front foot or according to the benefits as determined by the Superintendent of Streets or by the council on appeal. The contractor collects his pay from the property owner and generally assigns his liens and in case the owner does not pay the assessment he may bring suit in the Superior Court to enforce the lien. Most of the bonds are issued in small denominations, from \$25 up to \$1000, with part of the principal payable each year. Frequently it is possible to obtain issues below par when necessity for ready money is imperative.

Proceedings to Force Payment

In the case of non-payment of the principal or interest of the bonds the property liable may be sold by the city,—upon application of the holder,—in a manner similar to that prescribed in the case of non-payment of taxes. There is no personal liability on the part of the owner; for the bonds are simply as good as the property they cover and no better, as each is a lien on a particular tract. As has been said, interest is paid by the city treasurer, usually semi-annually, January and July. The life of most bonds does not exceed ten years. The only way the owner can induce acceptance before maturity is to make default in payment. If the holder elects to exercise his option and consider the whole amount due and owing and endeavors to force payment by a sale of the property the owner may pay principal and accrued interest and costs and obtain a discharge of the lien. The lien of the bonds is enforced by an application to the city treasurer. The whole proceedings consume from a month to a month and a half. There is a period of redemption of a year during which the interest charges are 12 per cent.

Things to Be Investigated

It is somewhat obvious that street-improvement bonds are issued against newly-developed sections of cities and towns. This implies that they may cover territory that has been over-boomed and may be inflated in price. It also brings into doubt the ques-

tion of early realization of the hopes of the property owners. In addition there is the question of the attitude of public utilities occupying said streets, toward the improvements. These have all caused confusion and vexation in specific instances, and to them are attributed the losses that have been referred to earlier in this article.

The chief fault found in street-improvement bonds is that they are issued at times in excess of the property against which they are a lien. This also happens in real-estate mortgages where second and third mortgages are placed and the total mortgage debt is beyond the proper appraisal of the buildings and lands mortgaged. Where a plot of land has little depth, but a liberal street facing, the risk to the buyer of such bonds is great. Again, if the section of the city where the improvement is laid down is poor and with no future, even 7 per cent. income does not compensate for the risk involved.

Investors who are considering these bonds must have their eyes and ears open. Too much investigation of the particular property bonded cannot be made. One should go about one's purchase with the same caution that one would exhibit in taking a real-estate mortgage. If possible visit the section involved. If that is not feasible, communicate with banks, real-estate agents, or merchants in the vicinity of it. One issue of such bonds now being sold is only 25 per cent. of a conservative appraisal of the property value. Under such conditions, safety of principal and liberality of income produce a combination that fully commends itself to a careful buyer. More than this the character of the banking-house or group of capitalists offering street-improvement bonds is an element to be fully considered. Where offered by irresponsible parties they should be shunned.

In one of the California cities a number of men of local prominence formed a syndicate for the purchasing and marketing of the street-improvement securities of that city. They were eminently successful and the investors who bought the bonds have been fully satisfied. There is a certain amount of trouble attending the frequent maturity and consequent reinvestment which does not exist with long-term bonds and the element of marketability is not very strong. With short life, however, most investors are willing to carry their bonds until paid off.

In conclusion, therefore, it may be said that if the plan outlined, of full investigation of the particular property bonded is made to determine whether or not the bonds

issued for street-improvement work do not exceed the value of the property itself and if the locality is a growing one in a progressive community and the offering house has a

strong local reputation, no objection can be made to purchases of bonds of this class, even though the interest rate, on first thought, is against them.

II.—INVESTMENT QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 661. ABOUT A MISCELLANEOUS LOT OF STOCKS FOR THE MOST PART SPECULATIVE

Kindly inform me regarding the highest and lowest prices at which the following stocks have sold since the first of the year, and tell me whether or not you think they are good investments at present prices: Bethlehem Steel preferred, Crucible Steel common, Erie first preferred, Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh Coal common, Pressed Steel Car common, Republic Iron & Steel preferred, U. S. Steel common, Western Union and Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing common.

Up to the time of writing, these stocks have recorded the following highest and lowest prices since the first of the year:

	Highest.	Lowest.
Bethlehem Steel preferred.....	142	91
Crucible Steel common.....	89	18 $\frac{1}{4}$
Erie first preferred.....	46 $\frac{3}{8}$	32 $\frac{1}{4}$
Pennsylvania	111 $\frac{3}{8}$	103 $\frac{3}{8}$
Pittsburgh Coal common.....	26 $\frac{7}{8}$	15 $\frac{1}{4}$
Pressed Steel Car common.....	59 $\frac{3}{4}$	25
Republic Iron & Steel preferred..	98 $\frac{1}{2}$	72
U. S. Steel common.....	73 $\frac{3}{8}$	38
Western Union.....	71	57
Westinghouse Electric & Mfg. com.	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	64

It is possible that by the time this issue of the REVIEW is in the hands of its readers, some new records may have been established, especially in the industrial issues, since it is in their department of the market that the most active trading has lately been going on.

As far as any of these stocks may be said to possess investment characteristics, we think Pennsylvania is undoubtedly the best issue in the list, and the most desirable purchase at present prices for the purposes of the average man. It is, in fact, one of the most thoroughly seasoned dividend payers in the whole category of standard stocks, and as its range of prices shows, its market position is one of rather exceptional stability.

Of the various industrial issues, Westinghouse seems to us to be entitled to probably as much consideration as any of the others in this list. In spite of the fact that the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company holds an important place among the concerns engaged in the manufacture of war munitions, its stock has not been the object of the same kind of ill-considered speculation as most of the other so-called "war order" issues.

Republic Iron & Steel preferred and Bethlehem Steel preferred have some investment characteristics, as industrial stocks go, as has also Western Union, but the other issue in the list we believe to be essentially, and in many respects dangerously, speculative.

No. 662. MORTGAGES, MORTGAGE BONDS AND MUNICIPAL SECURITIES

I have written to you before concerning my investments and I think I have always profited by your suggestions, so I am coming to you again for help. I shall soon have several thousand dollars coming in from stock in a building and loan association now in process of liquidation, and this money I desire to re-invest. My other investments as they now stand consist of mort-

gages and mortgage bonds secured on city property in Illinois, Indiana and Pennsylvania, a first mortgage on a Georgia farm and an Indiana municipal bond. I like first mortgages or first mortgage bonds, but I do not want to have all my money invested in one city or State, or by one investment banker. I want to get 6 per cent., if I can do so safely. What would you advise in these circumstances?

We have no doubt that, if you were to look into the offerings of some of the reputable and experienced banking houses specializing in investments based upon real estate, either farm land or improved city property, other than those with whom you have already established connections, you would be able to find something entirely safe to yield quite as much as 6 per cent. But we would also suggest that there is really no need for you to change your bankers merely in order to accomplish your purpose in respect to wider geographical diversification,—a purpose, by the way, which we consider a highly commendable one. It is very often desirable to have more than one dependable banking counselor, but too many are apt to work somewhat at cross purposes to the confusion of the investor.

It might be further suggested that another municipal security would fit in well with your present holdings. In this category of investment, it is not always easy to find suitable bonds yielding as much as 6 per cent., but they are by no means uncommon, and when they are found bearing the sponsorship of trustworthy specialists they make excellent income investments.

No. 663. AGAIN THE QUESTION OF RIGHTS OF BONDHOLDERS IN REORGANIZATION

I thank you for the information you have given me from time to time regarding the Western Pacific situation. I am now enclosing copy of a letter I have received from the first mortgage bondholders' protective committee and would like to ask you whether it is really true that, as the committee says in the letter, "the benefits of any plan of reorganization that may be adopted, and of any purchase of the mortgaged property that may be made pursuant thereto, will accrue only to depositors." Does this mean that those who do not deposit their bonds with the committee can be prevented from realizing anything on them?

Yes, it is quite true that, when it comes to a final readjustment of this company's capital, those security holders who do not assent to the plan that is subscribed to by the majority may be shut out entirely from participating in any future benefits that may accrue from the readjustment. This is a principle of corporate reorganization that has been upheld in the courts time and again.

So that upon notice that the committee has obtained the assent of the majority of security holders to its plan of reorganization, and that it, therefore, intends to adopt the plan and under its provisions to sell the property under foreclosure, there is no alternative for you but to give your assent by depositing your holdings with the committee, unless you elect to have recourse to the open market and sell your bonds at the sacrifice prices currently quoted.